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HARD AT WORK:

Women in the Urban Labor Force

BBC

HARD AT WORK:
WOMEN IN THE UTAH LABOR FORCE

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PREFACE

As a female Utah labor force participant and a women whose formative years coincided with the height of the "Women's Lib" movement, I have been greatly interested in the changes that have occurred in the work experience of the Utah female. Some of the statistics I discovered surprised me; other data confirmed what I had already guessed from casual observation. Hopefully, the information contained in this publication will satisfy the curiosity of all those interested in how women are changing their role in Utah's work places.

The major problem in compiling a report on the women in Utah's labor force comes from the fact that there exists such scant state-specific data. The United States Decennial Censuses of Population rank as the best statistical source for information on working Utah females. Much detailed information can be gleaned from Census data — income, earnings, education, marital status, occupation, participation rates, and so on. Unfortunately, major changes occur between decades.

The Bureau of the Census conducts the Current Population Survey (CPS) for the Bureaus of Labor Statistics (which is part of the Department of Labor — what would government be without bureaus and departments?) on a regular basis. The Current Population Survey makes available recent (although somewhat limited) annual data on labor force statistics by sex in the state of Utah and contributes the most up-to-date figures.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

I. DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Women currently make up the largest share of Utah's population (50.4 percent).

2. Utah has the youngest population in the country and is one of the fastest growing states. (The Utah 1980 median age equaled 24.2 years compared to the U.S. median of 30.0 years.)

3. While the ratio of married couples compared to the total adult population in the state has dropped significantly in the past few decades, Utahn's still retain a higher propensity for the married state than do their fellow Americans.

4. Simple observation and statistics reveal that not only are more people getting divorced, but adults are remaining single longer.

5. The 1984 Utah fertility rate weighed in at 23 births per 1,000 population; the U.S. rate was only 15 babies per 1,000 people.

6. In Utah as well as the nation, fertility rates are declining among most women. Utah women in their childbearing years are delaying births and are limiting family size overall when compared to their immediate predecessors.

7. The drop in Utah female fertility rates falls below the decline in fertility rates nationwide.

8. Overall, education is increasing for both sexes within the Beehive State.

9. While more than half of all U.S. college students were women in the fall of 1982, only 43 percent of Utah college students were female (that puts Utah at the bottom of the list of U.S. states and the District of Columbia).

10. Utah women still show a disproportionate tendency to major in the humanities, education, and nursing. However, some changes are being made—more and more business, law, and medical degrees are going to women.

11. Research indicates that several interesting correlations exist between these demographic characteristics and women's labor force experience:

    a. The fewer children a women has the more likely she is to be employed outside the home. Declining birth rates suggest higher overall labor force participation.

    b. Women who have or expect to have children generally earn less than childless women.

    c. The higher a women's educational attainment the fewer births she has or expects to have.

    d. The more schooling a woman obtains the more likely she is to be a labor force participant.

e. The closer a wife's earnings are to her husband's the more likely she is to delay having children.

f. Women who postpone childbirth display a solid attachment to the labor force both before and after their first child is born.

g. Early marriage is more of a deterrent to women's educational attainment than it is to men's.

h. As single women are the most likely labor force participants, the fact that more women are delaying marriage suggests a higher overall participation rate for women.

II. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

1. Utah women have been steadily moving into the workplace since the turn of the century, and they currently participate in the labor force in record numbers.

   a. In 1900, an estimated 13 percent of Utah's adult females worked outside the home.

   b. By 1940, almost a fourth of Utah women were labor force participants.

   c. In 1984, the Current Population Survey estimates that 54.4 percent of all Utah women 16 years and older were either working or looking for a job.

2. While it may seem that women have flooded into the job market in the last few years, actually the increase has been relatively steady.

3. Utah's female participation rate registers higher than does the rate for the country as a whole, in spite of the fact that Utah women initially lagged behind the rest of the American women.

4. Female rates tend to be understated as the average woman statistically outlives the average man.

5. Women 20 to 24 show the highest propensity to be labor force participants—their rate exceeds 70 percent.

6. More than half of Utah's married women have moved into the civilian labor force. Mothers of young (preschool) children, while least likely of all categories to work, have joined the work force at the fastest rate and 45 percent are currently labor force participants.

7. Utah women made up 42 percent of the Utah civilian labor force in 1984. Between the years of 1950 and 1980 Utah's labor force expanded more than one and one-half times; women accounted for 62 percent of this growth.

8. The only instance in recent history when women have not sustained higher unemployment rates occurred in the 1982-83 recession when heavily male dominated industries (such as mining, construction, heavy manufacturing) experienced the brunt of the economic malaise.

9. Women make up the largest share of discouraged workers—those who have stopped looking for work because of real or perceived barriers to their employment.

10. Approximately 30 percent of the 1984 Utah female labor force participants maintained part-time labor market status compared to 10 percent of Utah males.

11. Gains in the average expected female worklife have outdistanced gains in life expectancy by two to one.

12. Why have women continued their to the work place in ever increasing numbers?

    a. For increasing numbers of women, work force participation has become an economic necessity.

    b. Falling fertility, smaller families, and delayed childbirth make combining a job with home responsibilities easier.

    c. The increasing educational attainment of women means they have access to more interesting and better paying jobs.

    d. Changes in social mores make employment acceptable and even mandatory for certain groups of women.

    e. Perhaps the most important reason for the influx of women into the labor force can be stated simply—the jobs were there. Recent growth in jobs has been heavily concentrated in areas that are traditionally though of as "women's work."

13. Three-fourths of a Utah female labor force *nonparticipants* stated that home responsibilities kept them from seeking paid employment.

III. OCCUPATIONS

1. While women are making inroads into certain male sanctums of employment, in some senses, occupational segregation by sex is just as pronounced today as it was at the turn of the century. Women still tend to remain in jobs where more than half their occupational co-workers are of the same sex.

2. Utah women have made the largest gains between the Census years of 1970 and 1980 in occupations such as insurance investigators, computer operators, science technicians, bus drivers and public relation specialists.

3. Women appear to be making more progress into professional, technical and managerial jobs than blue collar, mechanical or structural jobs.

4. Backsliding with respect to occupational segregation is occurring some areas—secretarial and typing professions have become even more heavily packed with females than they were in the past. The 1980 Census showed that 99 percent of the secretaries in Utah were women.

5. The industrial concentrations of women closely reflect occupational outlines.

   a. Women are severely underrepresented in such industries as mining, construction, and heavy manufacturing.

   b. Women make up most of the private household workers and the *overwhelming* majority of unpaid family workers.

6. Why worry about the fact that there is sexual segregation by occupation in the job market?

   a. Economist contend that occupational segregation with total disregard for individual ability creates inefficiencies and inequities in the system.

   b. Inefficient allocation lowers the country's overall economic output and hurts everyone.

   c. Jobs traditionally held to be "woman's work" pay low salaries almost invariably. They also lack status, and provide limited chances for advancement. As more dual earner families come on the scene, these factors affect not only women but their husbands and families economic well-being.

7. A number of theories have been advanced to account for the perpetuity of "the pink collar ghetto":

   a. Women may consciously trade off higher wages, chances for greater advancement, and job status for the flexibility and reduced demands that female occupations usually seem to offer. Thus, it becomes easier for them to combine work and family responsibilities.

   b. Women may underestimate the chances that they will work continuously or later on in life. (The "Prince Charming or Mr. Wealthy will carry me away" syndrome.)

   c. Women may select predominately female occupations because they think that these jobs are the only ones open to them.

   d. Women may be denied access to certain jobs because of hidden or outright sexual discrimination.

IV. INCOME

1. In 1979, according to Census data, the median earnings for year-round, full-time, Utah female workers registered only 53 percent of the median earnings for the comparable group of Utah men. The comparable figure for the U.S. was 56 percent.

2. Historically, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), the U.S. male/female earnings ratio has hovered right around 60 percent. (Figures vary depending on whose data you use and on what groups of workers are included.)

3. The most current BLS reading of the U.S. earnings ratio is for 1983 and registered at 64 percent. However, many economists believe part of this increase came as a result of the declining real wage for men during the recession.

4. The 1984 ratio for female wage and salary workers dropped from recession levels indicating women may not have made as much progress as originally anticipated.

5. The best paying jobs for Utah men tend also to be the best paying jobs for Utah women (you know, managers, doctors, lawyers). However women's earnings in those professions do not even approach those of men.

6. In 1979, the median income for Utah women with four years of college was less than the median income of Utah men with a seventh grade education.

7. By age the income gap is smallest for those under 20 years-old.

8. Utah wives contributed 16 percent of married couple earnings in 1979 (less than American wives in general who contributed almost one-fifth).

9. The Census shows that the more education the husband has the smaller the fraction of the family's income is contributed by the wife *regardless* of her educational background.

10. Why does the earnings gap exist?

    a. Women have "career preferences" for lower paying "female occupations." However, even in occupations which are consistently female, men consistently out earn women and some research indicates that "female occupations" may pay less merely because women work in them.

    b. Many women want to move in and out of the work force, choosing to remain at home, if they can, while their children are young. However, research indicates that increasingly most women can be separated into two different categories—those always in the labor market and those always out. Moreover, women with life-long job commitments do not make significantly more money than those women who move in and out of the labor force.

    c. Women tend to have spent less time in a particular job than men. Research indicates that this discrepancy accounts for only about 4 percent of "the gap." However, women have only recently been moving into "high paying" jobs in any significant numbers and most have not yet reached the top of their professions.

    d. Women are not as highly educated as men and tend to remain disproportionately illiterate in mathematics, science and engineering. Again, research shows that differences in education accounts for only a small portion of the earnings differential.

    e. Women are paid less than men with the same characteristics on the same job because they produce less. However, as far as this theory can be measured, equally productive men and women receive unequal wages.

    f. Although most women are delaying marriage/childbirth and obtaining a better education, significant numbers of women are marrying to young, becoming pregnant too soon, and divorcing at young ages. With no skills or training and often not even a high school education their projected income is limited. These women tend to drag the average down.

g. Women may be paid less because they are discriminated against. Most research indicates that only about half of the differences in male/female earnings can be accounted for by reasoning stated above. This fact seems to imply some sort of institutionalized discrimination but does not prove it.

11. "Comparable worth" is one remedy being proposed to help eliminate the income gap and provide equity. A comparable worth system numerically ranks *different* occupations and uses this ranking to assign salaries.

12. The battle over comparable worth still rages on and comparable worth threatens to become one of the hottest compensation issues of the decade.

13. According to the Census, *one-third* of all female-headed households in Utah had incomes below poverty level in 1979.

    a. Young unmarried mothers, displaced homemakers, and elderly females make up a large portion of the poor.

    b. Due to the large social outlays required to sustain those in the ranks of poverty and on the basis of humanitarian concerns, much interest has been expressed by Utah government in integrating these women into the work force and preparing them to adequately support themselves.

V. MISCELLANEOUS

1. One of the major concerns of working parents (particularly working mothers) is the quality and cost of child care. Government and employers provide little help in resolving the child care issue and often the cost of that care negates much of the woman's earnings.

2. Many times a woman's employment outside the home creates marital tensions. In adapting to the wife's employment the central problem for husbands seems to be one of self-esteem—of getting over any embarrassment, guilt or apprehension associated with the wife's employment. For wives, the central problem appears to be getting the husband to share the housework.

3. Contrary to the predictions of many, researchers have found that employment has by far the most consistent tie to a woman's good health. Multiple roles appear to be linked to good health.

4. Research indicates that the effects of legislation to eliminate sexual discrimination in the workplace have been marginal at best. Moreover, government tax policies (income as well as Social Security) actually penalize two-earner families.

VI. THE FUTURE

1. Participation in the labor force for women should increase in the future—the Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts that 60 percent of adult women will be U.S. labor force participants by the year 2000.

2. Most employment growth is expected to come in the service sector—jobs typically held by women. The fact that women are in the labor force at all generates demand for service related products.

3. Working against rapid improvement in the areas of occupations and incomes is the sheer size of the female labor force. A great deal of change must occur to make any statistical improvement evident.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

In the first election following Utah's 1896 admission to statehood, Mattie Hughes Cannon, an M.D., ran against her husband for the state legislature, won the seat, and became the first woman in the nation to be elected a state senator. Ida Ione Cook, the first female university president, presided over the University of Utah from 1871 to 1873. One of the United States' first women mayors, Mary Howard, headed Kanab's all woman city council in 1912. Lady lawyers, Phoebe Couzens and Georgie Snow were admitted to the Utah Bar in 1872; and in 1873, Romania B. Pratt Penrose distinguished herself as Utah's first woman doctor and surgeon as well as the first resident physician at Deseret Hospital.

Since the inception of Utah as a territory and a state, women have played an important role in the State's economy—although not always in the paid labor force. Remarkably, the issues of women's employment have changed little. Suffragettes in 1885 expounded much the same ideology as do feminists in 1985. What was then "emancipation" has changed today into "equal rights" and "liberation." Equal pay, equal opportunity, and equal access to employment were heatedly discussed then as now. However, women's employment situation has changed; they have been steadily making themselves felt in the work force. At the turn of the century, an estimated 13 percent of Utah's female population worked outside the home. In 1940, not even a fourth of Utah's working age women were employed or looking for work. Now, current estimates place 1984 female labor force participation in Utah at more than 50 percent. Undoubtedly, women are now doing what before they only talked about. Females have been at the vortex of phenomenal changes in society in general as well as in the work place. However, in some areas, notably pay and occupation, what many perceive as progress appears to proceed at a snail's pace.

This publication examines how the work experience of Utah women has changed in recent years. In order to accomplish this task, we will look at areas that affect and are affected by women's participation in the work force. The body of this report is divided into four sections. To begin with, demographic characteristics for the State (population, marital status, education, etc.) are covered followed by a discussion of the actual change in women's work participation and habits. Subsequently, because of their important and controversial nature, the areas of female occupations and income/earnings each get a chapter to themselves. The body concludes with a section which pulls together various female related employment issues and effects. For those of you keenly interested in statistics and definitions, the appendix offers further detail. Many of you may not want to wade through all the information contained in this booklet. For you, the executive summary might prove to be interesting.

What are the issues and problems associated with female employment? How does a Utah woman's experience differ from her sisters' nationwide? Hopefully, this report will not only answer these questions, but it will provide insights into exactly what is happening in Utah's work force with respect to women.

CHAPTER 1
DEMOGRAPHICS

The Changing Face of Utah's Female Population

"We believe that women are useful, not only to sweep houses, wash dishes, make beds, and raise babies, but that they should stand behind the counter, study law or physics, or become good bookkeepers and be able to do the business in any counting house, and all this to enlarge their sphere of usefulness for the benefit of society at large."

Brigham Young
Utah Colonizer

CHAPTER 1

DEMOGRAPHICS

The Changing Face of Utah's Female Population

Recent changes in the labor force experience of women cannot be fully understood without examining other demographic transitions. Variations in population, marital status, and fertility all affect or are affected by the move of women into the labor force. The statistics presented below will probably confirm what you've already guessed from just paying attention to current events. However, to understand the forces involved in the rush of record numbers of women to the workplace, the changing face of the population in general should be analyzed. At times, the inter-relationship between demographic factors makes causal associations unclear. However, a better picture of Utah's female labor force can be created by examining changes in population characteristics.

POPULATION TRENDS—Growing Young

Between 1950 and 1980, the number of Utah's inhabitants more than doubled, while during the same time period, the U.S. populace increased by little more than half. Population expansion in Utah continues to outstrip the nation generally as evidenced by the fact that Utah ranks third among all states in population growth between 1980 and 1983. However, in Utah, as well as in the country at large, the growth rate for females has been greater than the comparable rate for males. Utah men outnumbered Utah women in 1950, but the apportionment between the sexes has gradually shifted. According to the Census, by 1980, Utah females made up the majority (50.4 percent) of the State's population. The country followed this same trend, although U.S. women started out with a plurality in 1950 and have increased their share ever since.

TEXT TABLE 1

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
POPULATION BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENT CHANGE 1950-1980
UTAH	688.9	890.6	1059.3	1461.0	112.1
FEMALE	341.2	445.7	536.1	736.3	115.8
MALE	347.6	444.9	523.2	724.7	108.5
UNITED STATES	151,325.8	179,325.7	203,210.2	226,545.8	49.7
FEMALE	76,139.2	91,022.6	104,328.4	116,498.3	53.0
MALE	75,186.6	88,303.1	98,881.7	110,047.5	46.4

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

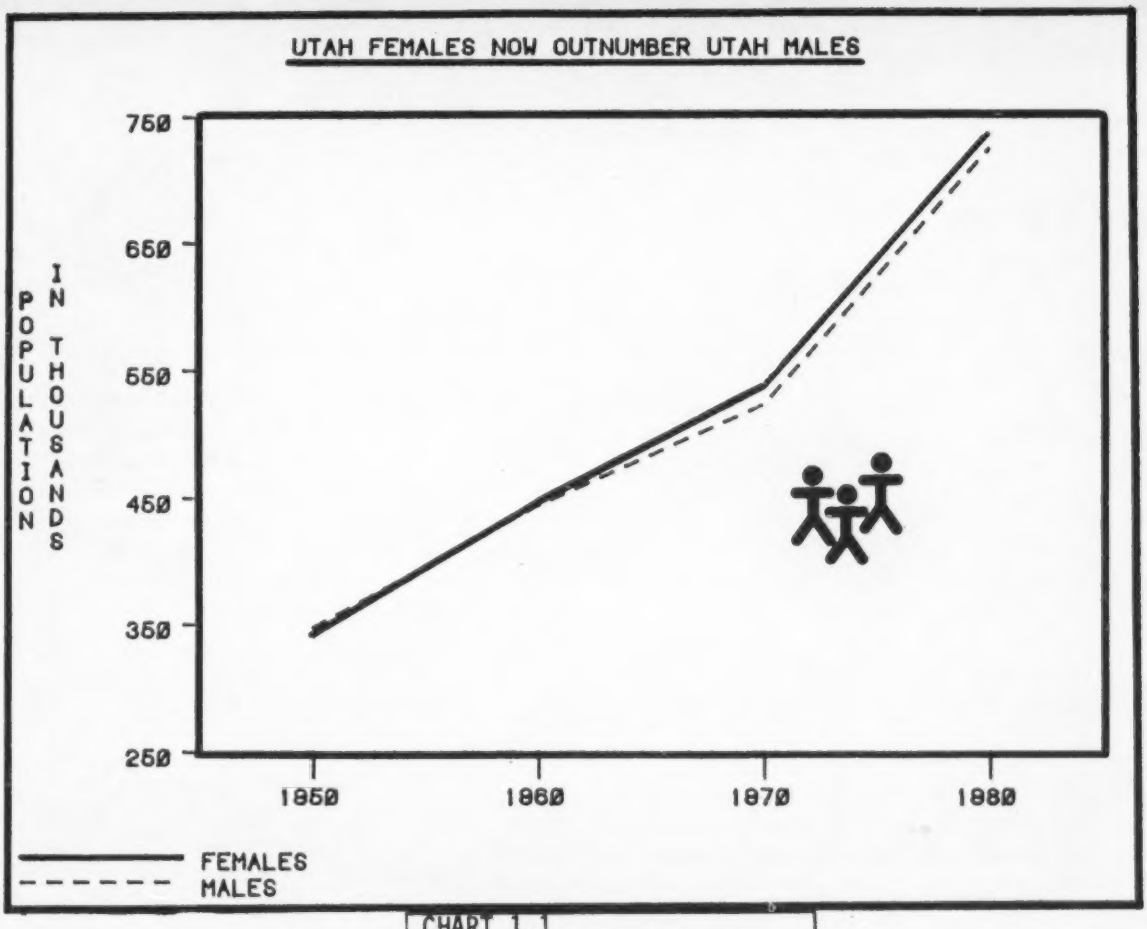


CHART 1.1
UTAH POPULATION BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, 1980

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

So, women make up a larger share of the State's population. Does the same hold true for all age groups? In the "65 and older" category, females outnumber men to a significant degree. This fact should not come as a surprise. Most people are aware that women generally outlive their spouses by a substantial number of years. What may not be so well known is that the trend during the past four decades has been for women to enlarge their share of this age group. Some "experts" have predicted that as more women entered the work force and experienced the same type of job-related tension as men that they should start experiencing more stress induced disease and earlier death. However, in 1950, Utah's women made up only 52 percent of those past retirement age; but by 1980 their share had jumped to almost 58 percent. The fact that women prevail in the older age groups implies that women's labor force participation tends to be understated. Excluding retirement-age people from participation rates results in higher figures for both sexes, but the impact is more dramatic for women due to their longevity.

Unless you've been living in a media vacuum, you have undoubtedly heard that Utah has the youngest population in the nation. According to the 1980 Census, Utah's median age of 24.2 years ranked as the lowest in the country. Certainly, Utah's median age fell substantially below the national figure of 30.0 years. In 1980, one third of Utah's population had not reached the age of 16 and estimates for 1983 place Utah as number one in terms of the percentage of the populace under 18 years-old. Overall, the portion of the U.S. populace age 15 years and younger in 1980 measured only 25 percent. (It's been said that in Utah you have a greater chance of being run over by a stroller than anywhere else in the country.)

However, there have been times in recent history when the proportion of Utah's population under "working age" has been even greater. The 1960 Census revealed that 40 percent of Utah's inhabitants had not attained the age of 16, and that approximately one-third of the U.S. community fell in the 0 to 15 year-old category—an obvious reflection of what has been called the baby boom of the 50s and early 60s. It is interesting to note that in this age group—under working age—boys consistently outnumber girls (at least in data for the most recent four Censuses).

As this is a report on women in the labor force, and since we've covered the population distribution in the pre-work and post-work age groups, it is only appropriate that the most relevant classification—those whose age make them most likely to be employed — becomes the topic of discussion. A scan of the data for the Utah populace between the ages of 16 and 64 for the census years 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980, reveals that women tend to outnumber men in the working years both specifically in Utah and in the country generally. Only in 1950 did more Utah men fall in the "working age" category than did women.

While both Utah and the U.S. showed a larger female share of 16-64 year-olds, the discrepancy between sexes was greater for the nation as a whole. The aging of the baby boom generation traces easily when working age population shares are examined. In 1950, the ratio of Utah inhabitants in the 16 to 64 year-old classification registered almost 59 percent. The ratio had dropped to 54 percent during 1960 (when boomers were babies); and by 1980, the ratio had increased again to over 59 percent (as boomers matured). Figures for the U.S. follow the same pattern as Utah data, although more of the country's populace (64 percent in 1980) is congregated in this age category reflecting Utah's extremely young population. The fact that disproportionate numbers of women fall in the ages generally eligible for employment implies that they could possibly (given the right participation rates) outnumber men in the labor force.

TEXT TABLE 2

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
POPULATION PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980

	1950	1960	1970	1980
UTAH				
FEMALE	49.5	50.0	50.6	50.4
MALE	50.5	50.0	49.4	49.6
UNITED STATES				
FEMALE	50.3	50.8	51.3	51.4
MALE	49.7	49.2	48.7	48.6

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

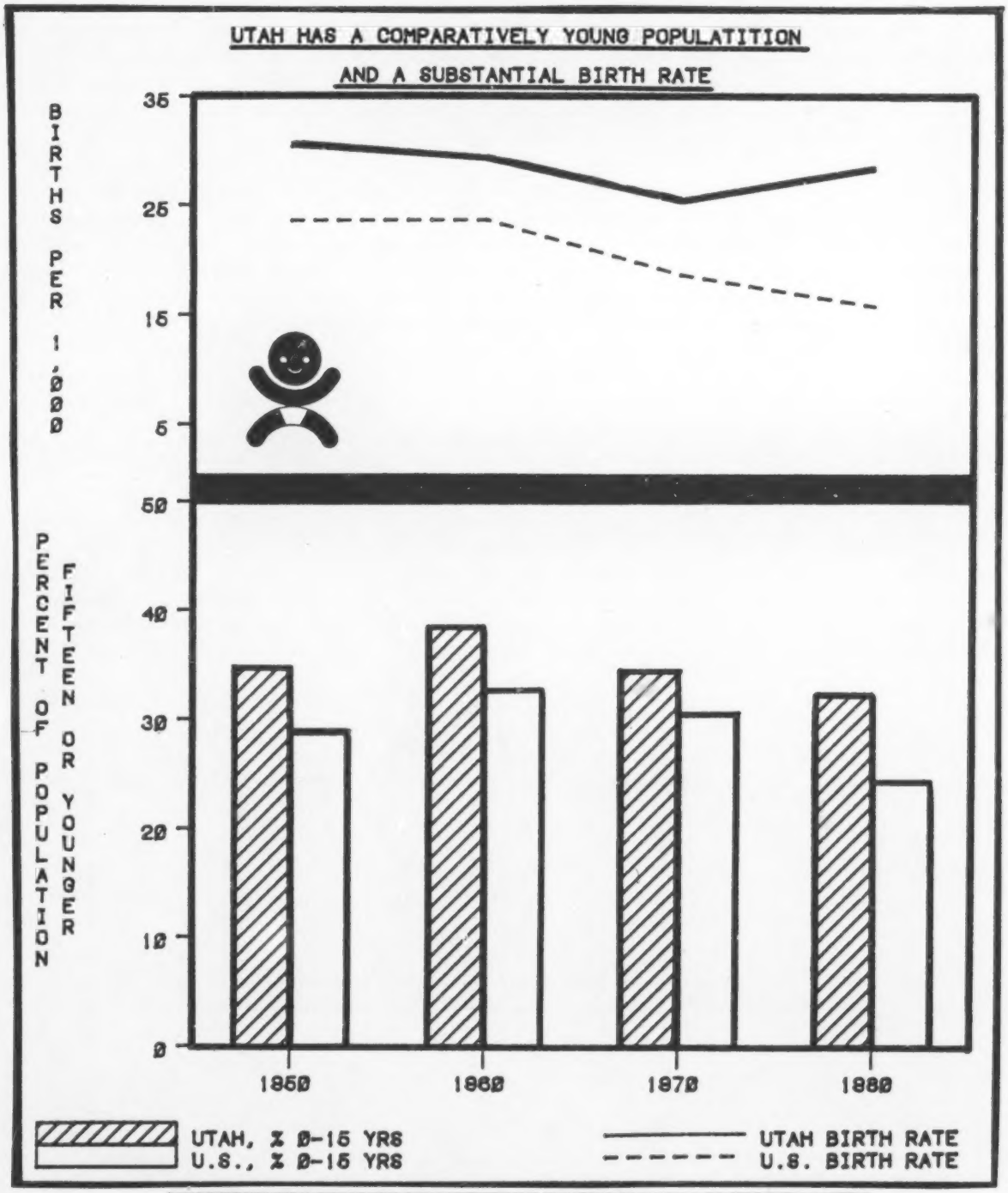


CHART 1.2
UTAH AND UNITED STATES BIRTH RATE AND
PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION 15 YEARS OR YOUNGER
1950, 1960, 1970, 1980

SOURCE: UTAH DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

TEXT TABLE 3

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION, PERSONS 15 AND OLDER
MARITAL STATUS BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980

MARITAL STATUS	1950		1960		1970		1980		PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE	
	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE
UTAH										
SINGLE	19.0	25.7	17.3	22.7	22.1	27.4	21.5	27.1	2.5	1.4
MARRIED, EXCEPT SEPARATED	69.0	68.7	69.8	72.3	64.0	67.5	62.5	65.9	-6.5	-2.8
SEPARATED	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.7	1.1	0.9	0.5	0.3
WIDOWED	9.0	2.7	9.4	2.2	9.2	1.8	8.3	1.5	-0.7	-1.2
DIVORCED	2.3	2.2	2.8	2.2	3.8	2.7	6.6	4.7	4.3	2.5
UNITED STATES										
SINGLE	18.8	24.9	17.3	23.2	20.6	26.4	22.9	29.7	4.4	4.8
MARRIED, EXCEPT SEPARATED	64.9	67.3	65.4	69.7	60.5	66.2	55.2	60.7	-9.7	-6.6
SEPARATED	2.1	1.6	2.1	1.5	2.3	1.5	2.6	1.9	0.5	0.3
WIDOWED	12.0	4.2	12.4	3.5	12.7	3.1	12.3	2.5	0.3	-1.7
DIVORCED	2.4	2.0	2.9	2.2	4.0	2.8	7.1	5.3	4.7	3.3

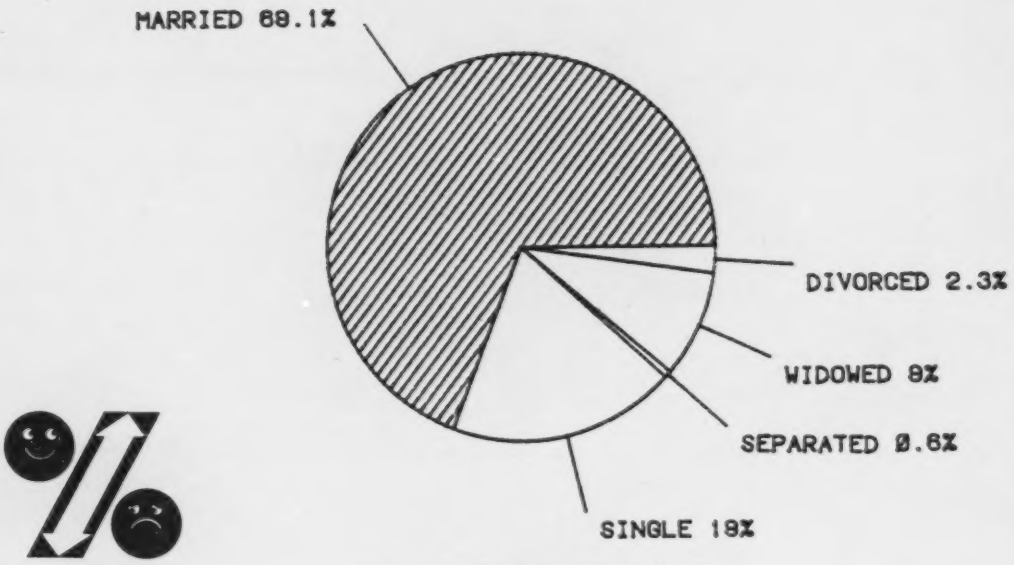
SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE—Here Comes, and There Goes, the Bride

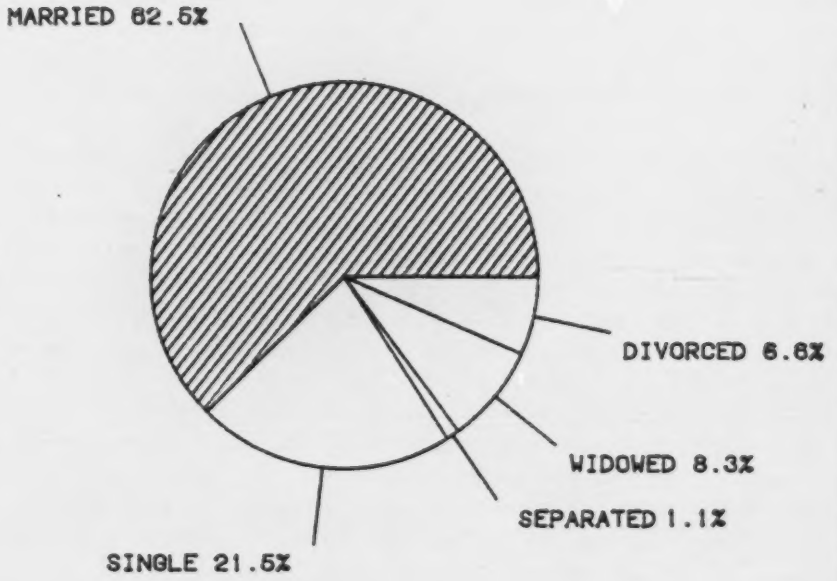
In 1950, 69 percent of Utah's marriageable age population were within the bonds of wedlock. By the time of the 1980 Census, marrieds had dropped to just 64 percent. However, a larger share of Utahns reside in the state of matrimony than do Americans as a whole. Corresponding Census figures show that only 58 percent of the U.S. population 15 and older were bound by nuptial ties (6 percentage points lower than Utah). So, what has happened to all these people who used to be married? Common sense and a little observation indicates that more and more people are getting divorced—and the statistics agree. In 1950, Utah experienced a divorce rate (number of divorces per 1,000 people) of 3.0; by 1982, her divorce rate had climbed to 5.4. Moreover, when the distribution of population between the different marital statuses is examined, we can see that between 1950 and 1980, there occurred a 3.4 percentage point increase in the number of divorced individuals in Utah and an even bigger U.S. increase (4.0 points). Not only are more people getting divorced, but more people are remaining single (or at least postponing marriage). The number of never-marrieds increased by almost 2 percentage points in Utah and 4.5 points in the U.S. During the same time period, the portion of people falling in the "widow/widower" category actually declined slightly.

While the average Utahn displays a stronger attachment to marriage than does his fellow American, Utah's populace has been following the trend of society in general. In fact, since 1950, Utah's divorce rate has been higher than the national average in all but one year, a circumstance that may reflect Utah's youthful marriages (young marriages are generally more likely to dissolve). However, the state's higher divorce rate is offset by a higher marriage rate—12.0 per 1,000 in 1982 compared to 10.8 for the entire U.S.

FEWER AND FEWER UTAH WOMEN ARE MARRIED AT AN GIVEN POINT IN TIME . . .



FEMALE MARITAL STATUS
1950



FEMALE MARITAL STATUS
1980

CHART 1.3
UTAH FEMALE PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY MARITAL STATUS
1950 AND 1980

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

Moreover, Utah's current marriage rate is higher than the comparable 1950 figure leading us to believe that more remarriages now take place.

Why is marital status important in a report dealing with women in the labor force? Well, for one thing, unmarried women have always been more likely than married females to be labor force participants. Therefore, as fewer and fewer women are married at any given point in time, the chances increase that female labor force participation will expand and provides a reason for at least part of the influx of women into paid employment.

Comparing the differences in the portions of never-married 20 to 24 year-olds between the censuses shows that women (and men) are remaining single longer. In 1960, only 26 percent of Utah females falling in the 20 to 24 year-old category had never been married. By 1980, this figure had risen to almost 39 percent. Women in the U.S. as a whole are delaying marriage even longer—more than half of this age group had never been married at the time of the 1980 Census. National figures reveal that women are marrying about two years later than they did at the end of World War II although Utah brides tend to be younger than the national average. Postponement of marriage means that women now have more time to go to school or work before marrying and thus better have more time to prepare themselves for a career. Men, too, are tying the knot at a later date—the 2.5 year gap in the median age of brides and grooms has not changed. So although women, on the average, have more years to lay the groundwork for job before marriage than they did previously, they still lag behind men and are less likely to continue with their education after marriage.

Not only does a woman's marital status influence her labor force participation, but the reverse is also true—the fact that a woman is employed also appears to have an effect on her marital status. Research has shown that the longer a wife has worked in the preceding ten years the greater the chances that either spouse had thought of divorce.[1] Moreover, other studies suggest that when wives earn high incomes, the chances increase that a couple will eventually divorce.[2] It appears that a wife's earnings may give her the financial independence to get out of a bad marriage. Research has also shown that marital tensions (at least on the husband's side) may be increased when both spouses work. However, this discord was closely related to recent changes in the wife's labor force status rather than employment itself.[3]

FERTILITY—Babies, Babies, Everywhere

The fact that Utah has the youngest population in the nation presents several implications. The possession of such a juvenile populace leads to the supposition that the Beehive State might show a fairly hefty birth rate in comparison with the rest of the nation. This certainly appears to be the case. In 1984, Utah's rate topped 23 births per 1,000 population—far outstripping the U.S. (estimated) figure of just over 15 births per 1,000. Since 1950, Utah's birth rate has continually surpassed the national rate, but in recent years the gap between the two has widened. However, births for both the State and the country have dropped significantly since 1950. During the 50s, Utah birth rates averaged in the low 30s while U.S. births per 1,000 registered in the mid-20s.

Another measure of fertility provides an idea of how the population has changed. At census time, data on the number of "children ever born" to women is collected. This information furnishes an outline of the trends in the total number of children women have in a lifetime. At the time of the 1950 census, Utah women in their childbearing years (15-44) had produced a little over 1.7 offspring a piece. (it may be difficult to imagine fractions of a child, but that is statistical life.) The rate for ever-married women

ranked a little higher—more than 2.2 babies per woman. U.S. women had birthed 1.4 children each, and ever-married females had produced just under 1.9 a piece. Now, how have things changed? When the 1980 census was taken, Utah women, 15-44 years-old, had engendered a little under 1.7 children each, while for ever married females the average rate had increased to almost 2.4 babies a piece.

If someone just looked at these figures, she/he might assume that the number of children a woman has in a lifetime has not changed substantially. However, closer examination of 1960 census data, exposes the extent to which the baby boom has affected these statistics. At that point in time, Utah females of childbearing age had produced an average of almost 2.1 children per woman and not quite 2.8 children per ever-married woman. Since that time, rates have shown a significant decline. However, remember that a decade and a half of depression and war had curtailed births to a certain extent during the 30s and 40s. Therefore, figures for children ever born would tend to be lower than normal in 1950 when the baby boom was in its infancy.

Another effect of the baby boom can be seen by examining the number of children born to women in the 35-44 year-old category. By this age, virtually all American women have completed their childbearing. In 1950, this group of Utah women had produced about 2.9 children a piece; by 1980, this age group had birthed 3.5 offspring per women. Females in this age classification during the year 1980, had mothered the majority of the baby boom generation. On the other hand, women in their 20s, have exhibited declining fertility rates—the baby bust. In other words, the large families of baby boomer moms have basically offset declining fertility for younger women resulting in what appears to be only a slight decline in the number of "children ever born" between the 1950 and 1980 censuses. However, while fertility for women in their 20s is falling, childbearing among certain groups of teenagers and among women over 30 has soared. Some researchers theorize that the lower fertility of young women could be due to timing[4]—perhaps those with jobs delay childbearing in order to establish themselves at work or to accumulate assets before starting a family.

Many of the atypical demographic statistics for Utah as compared to America women in general—higher birth rates, larger families, more and younger marriages—appear to reflect the influence of Utah's dominant religion. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (the "Mormons") espouses a highly family-oriented doctrine. Members are entreated to bring more children into the world and marriage is an important part of Mormon "salvation." The cultural bias and influence of the Mormon Church appears to be the main reason that Utah presents statistics so different from the rest of the country in the area of family and marriage. These demographic differences also appear to account for some of the variation in labor force statistics we'll encounter in the remainder of this report.

FERTILITY AND LABOR FORCE IMPLICATIONS

So what does all this interesting information have to do with women in the labor force? Let's look at some of the relationships between fertility and labor force participation.

The fewer children a woman has, the more likely she is to be employed outside the home. This correlation consistently appears in studies on fertility and work force participation. In 1980, employed women nationwide aged 18-34 had 0.8 children, on average, while women the same age who were not in the labor force had 1.7 children. In fact, one study implies that the birth rate among working women is only one third that of those not in the labor force.[5] This lower birth rate may be directly related to what women perceive as their primary role—career woman or mother.

There appears little doubt that fertility and labor force participation are inversely related, but the big question remains as to whether women restrict their families because they want to work or whether they work because they have small families. A decided controversy reigns over this question among researchers. Some studies show that working women want fewer children and that women who plan to be in the paid labor force have smaller family expectations.[6] Other research indicates that the number and age of a woman's children help to explain whether or not she works outside the home.[7] Even models that allow reciprocal causation between fertility and labor force variables seem unable to settle the dispute.[8] Some economic theorists (including Jacob Mincer and Richard Easterlin) suggest that it is not that fertility and wives' work affect each other, but that both factors react to changes in other elements such as the husband's income.[9] Whatever the causal relationships are, the declining birth rate implies that women are more likely to move into the paid work force.

Women who have or expect to have children tend to earn less than childless women.[10]

Moreover, because skill requirements and their upkeep have become so important in today's economy, the salary cost of having children is rising, particularly if children are born before the woman's career is established. A corollary of this relationship appears to be the fact that women with the highest family income have the fewest children, while women with extremely low family incomes display the highest fertility rates.[11]

The higher a woman's educational attainment, the fewer births she has or expects to have.[12]

One study suggests that the more education a woman has, the older she will be when her first child is born. In fact, researchers have indicated that educational level is the most important variable affecting the age at which a woman begins childbearing.[13] This can work conversely, too. The longer a woman puts off having that first baby, the longer she has to complete her higher education, and the more education a woman has the better prepared she is to take a spot in the job market. Research by economist Susan Ross suggests that college-educated women have children sooner after leaving school than those with less education, but that they spaced their children closer together, perhaps with an eye to allowing the wife to return to work quickly.[14]

The closer a wife's earnings are to her husband's, the more likely she is to delay having children.[15]

The more a woman contributes to her marriage's total income, the more difficult it becomes to forgo that income when a child is born (if she decides to restrict her labor force participation). This relationship is also connected to the premise stated above in that women with higher incomes tend to be better educated. In addition, women in professional or managerial occupations (whose earnings are relatively high) are most likely to put off having a family.[16]

Women who postpone childbirth display a solid attachment to the labor force both before and after their first child is born.[17]

The fact that women who delay having children show a strong connection to their employment may mean that their work histories will become comparable with men's, leading to the decline in some of the differences (such as in earnings) found between sexes on the job.

TEXT TABLE 4

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
PERCENT OF POPULATION AGED 20-24
NEVER MARRIED, BY SEX
1960, 1970 AND 1980

	PERCENT OF POPULATION AGED 20-24 NEVER MARRIED		
	1960	1970	1980
UTAH			
FEMALE	25.8	34.5	38.8
MALE	53.3	50.8	54.9
UNITED STATES			
FEMALE	28.4	36.3	51.2
MALE	53.1	55.5	68.2

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TEXT TABLE 5

UTAH AND UNITED STATES HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE PERCENT GRADUATES
PERSONS 25 YEARS & OVER
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980

	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980
UTAH					
COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL	49.9	55.8	67.3	80.0	30.1
FEMALE	51.5	56.8	67.3	79.1	27.6
MALE	48.3	54.9	67.2	81.0	32.7
COMPLETED 4 OR MORE YEARS COLLEGE	7.8	10.2	14.0	19.9	12.1
FEMALE	6.0	7.1	9.6	14.5	8.5
MALE	9.5	13.4	18.6	25.5	16.0
UNITED STATES					
COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL	33.4	41.1	52.3	66.5	33.1
FEMALE	35.1	42.5	52.8	65.8	30.7
MALE	31.5	39.5	48.4	67.3	35.8
COMPLETED 4 OR MORE YEARS COLLEGE	6.0	7.7	10.7	16.2	10.2
FEMALE	5.0	5.8	8.1	12.8	7.8
MALE	7.1	9.7	13.5	20.1	13.0

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

EDUCATION—Reading and Writing, But What About Arithmetic?

Utahns have always shown a high regard for education, and the population in Utah has always been significantly better schooled than the rest of the nation. For example, in 1980, almost one-fifth of the Utah population over the age of 25 had completed four or more years of college compared to only 16 percent nationwide. More than 14 percent of the women in the state had college degrees compared to about 13 percent in the country as a whole. However, women, in general, just don't complete as much schooling as men. Females typically marry younger than men and higher education is not stressed as much for women as it is for their male counterparts. It used to be that a greater percentage of females finished high school than did men, but even that relationship has been changing. Although in the 14 to 19 year-old category women out-distanced men as far as high school graduation goes, in the 25 years and older group, a greater percentage of men had completed high school than had women according to the 1980 Census.

Someone has said that Joe College is growing old—and that he's become a she. The Census Bureau reported that women contributed more than three-fourths of the growth in total college enrollment between 1972 and 1981. For the United States this may be true—during the Fall Quarter 1982, more than half of the college students in the country were women. But not so in Utah—in this state, during the same time period, only 43 percent of those enrolled in institutions of higher learning were female. This puts Utah below the remaining 49 states *and* the District of Columbia based on the criteria of the percentage of female college enrollees! (In other words, Utah is on the bottom of the list.) If this trend continues, Utah may lose its grip on comparatively high female educational attainment.

Let's look at college enrollment more closely. Using data from our old friend the 1980 Census, it appears that in Utah women made up the majority of college students under the age of 20 and over the age of 35. They made up less than one-third of graduate students, but were more likely than men to go back to finish their schooling at a later date. In fact, as of 1980, 14 percent of women college students had passed their thirty-fifth birthday.

Some research on national patterns suggests that the aging of recent cohorts of men and women whose post-secondary educational attainment is similar should eventually result in little or no difference in the percentage of men and women who are college graduates.[18] Although women (at least nationwide) are closing the degree gap, they still tend to major in education, the humanities, and the health sciences (in 1977, 15 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded to Utah women were in home economics—degrees which don't usually lead to jobs in the higher paying occupations. However, data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics on U.S. degrees showed that in 1980 women earned a fifth of all law degrees (up from 5 percent in 1970) and nearly a fifth of all medical degrees (doubling the 1970 rate). Moreover, almost half of the master's degrees awarded in 1980 went to women.[19]

In one study, Alexander and Reilly found that while early marriage is not as large a deterrent to post-marriage education enrollment as is generally believed, it poses a much greater restraint on women's educational attainment. They believe that as much as three-fourths of the post-marriage educational gap might be closed if women delayed marriage as long men.[20]

One of the work force benefits of a higher education turns out to be better pay (a subject covered more extensively in the chapter on Income/Earnings). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (or as those of us at Job Service fondly refer to it, BLS), college graduates also receive the benefits of a markedly lower unemployment rate and a larger share of managerial and professional jobs. BLS also

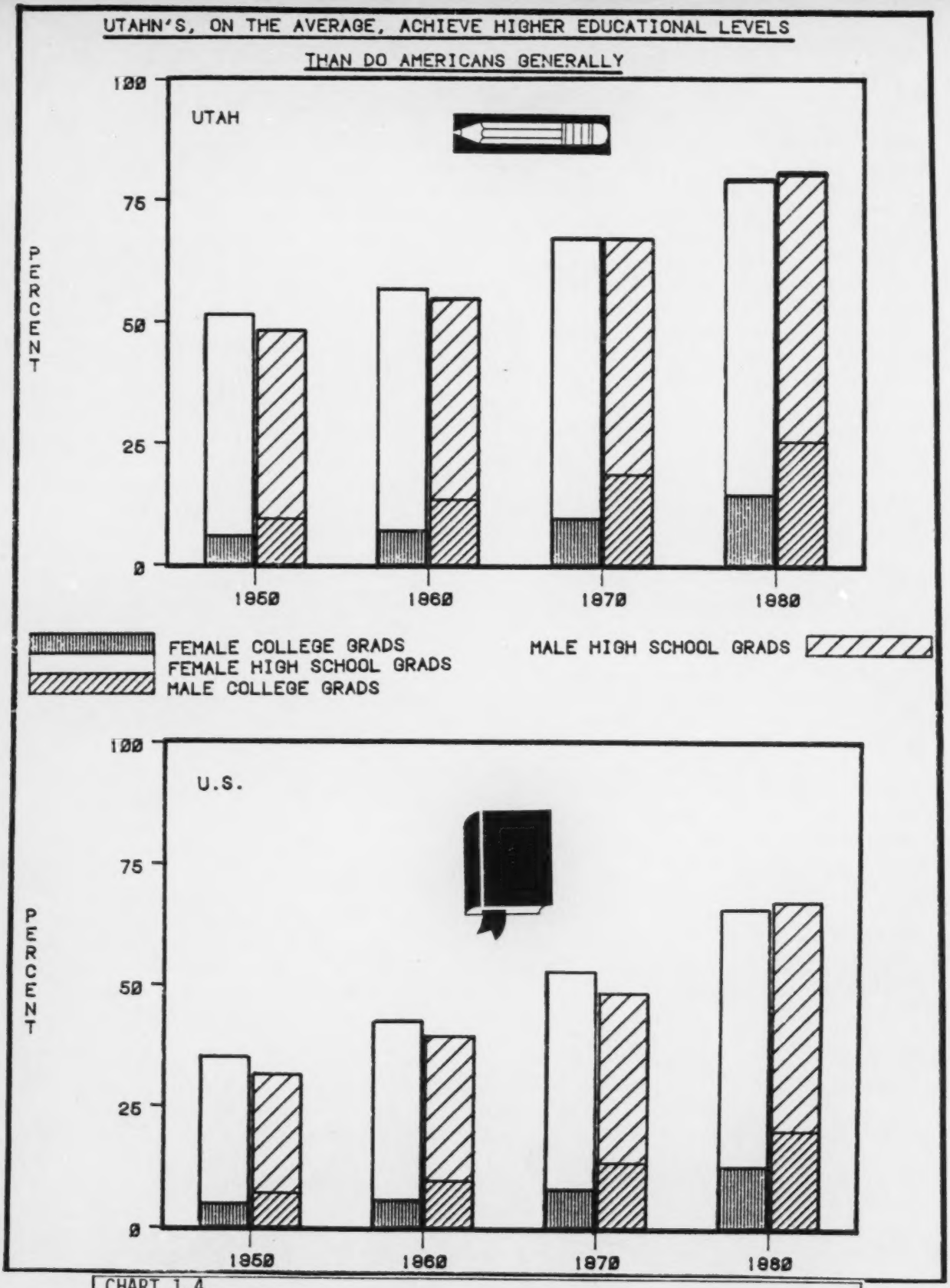


CHART 1.4
UTAH AND UNITED STATES PERCENT OF THE POPULATION 25 YEARS AND OLDER WITH 4 OR MORE YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL AND/OR COLLEGE
1950, 1960, 1970, 1980

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

found that the higher a woman's educational level, the more likely she is to participate in the labor force. For example, in 1984, the participation rate for women with college degrees registered at 78.0 percent—almost four-fifths of women with at least four years of college were working or looking for work. On the other hand, only 37.9 percent of the women with eight years or less education showed up as labor force participants.

SUMMING THINGS UP

Utah has become a state dominated (at least by population standards) by women. After the age of 15, women outnumber men in every age group and their dominance increases with maturity. Utah is also a state dominated by the young. One-third of her population was under the age of 16 at the time of the 1980 Census making the Beehive State the youngest in the nation. Even though Utah is experiencing a declining birth rate, Utah families remain larger than the national average; and even though more divorces are taking place, Utah's population is more likely to be married than are Americans in general. All of these facts contribute to a work force experience for Utah women that may differ significantly from their sisters nationwide as single women are more likely to work and labor force participation for married women varies inversely with the number of children she has.

CHAPTER 2
LABOR FORCE PARTICTIPATION

"Woman has always had one opportunity—the opportunity to work; this one thing has never been denied her. Man has never considered that she was out of her sphere when she toiled in the fields and factories; he has never criticized her for leaving her home for any kind of drudgery. But when she began to enter the professional field and when she began to compete with men in the great work of the world, she was reminded that she was going out of her own sphere and was neglecting her home."

Ahnie Wells Cannon
Member of the Utah State Legislature, 1913

CHAPTER 2

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

Utah Women at Work

They're here! More than half of the Utah's working age women are in the workplace or are looking for a job.

In the past couple of years women have invaded the labor force. I mean really, before about 1975, there were hardly any women in who were employed outside the home, except of course during the World War II. The rise in their labor force participation has been parabolic—rising out of obscurity to great heights in only a brief period of time. *Is that what you think? If so, think again.*

Even though record numbers of women are currently in the ranks of the employed, they have played an important (and not insignificant) part in America's paid labor force since before the turn of the century. In 1890, when the federal government first started keeping statistics on female employment, 18 percent of U.S. working age women (then 14 years and older) were employed or looking for work. From then on, female participation rates grew at a fairly steady speed (except for the swell experienced during World War II). Since the post war years, women's participation rates have increased between about six and eight percentage points every decade—hardly a meteoric rise. (A participation rate, by the way, is the portion of the working age population which is working or looking for work—see the appendix for a specific definition.) The Department of Labor estimates that 53.6 percent of the female civilian noninstitutional population maintained a place in the United States' civilian labor force during 1984. So why all the fuss? Why is it that everywhere you turn you find literature (and believe me there are a myriad of articles) about women at work? It's not like half the female population suddenly decided to flood the employment scene overnight! The process has been quite gradual. Dr. Carolyn Shaw Bell of Wellesley College attributes all the keen interest to the fact that women have now saturated the labor market (she calls it a "critical mass" situation) to the point that everyone is finally paying attention to their presence.[1]

TEXT TABLE 6

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
PERSONS 16 YEARS & OLDER
BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 AND 1984

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1984
UTAH	52.5	57.4	58.9	64.2	67.0
FEMALE	25.3	33.5	41.5	49.8	54.4
MALE	82.5	82.3	77.4	79.3	80.7
UNITED STATES	54.0	60.0	58.0	62.0	64.4
FEMALE	30.0	37.7	43.3	49.9	53.6
MALE	80.0	83.3	79.7	75.1	76.4

SOURCE: 1950 - 1980, CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1984 CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY (ANNUAL AVERAGE).

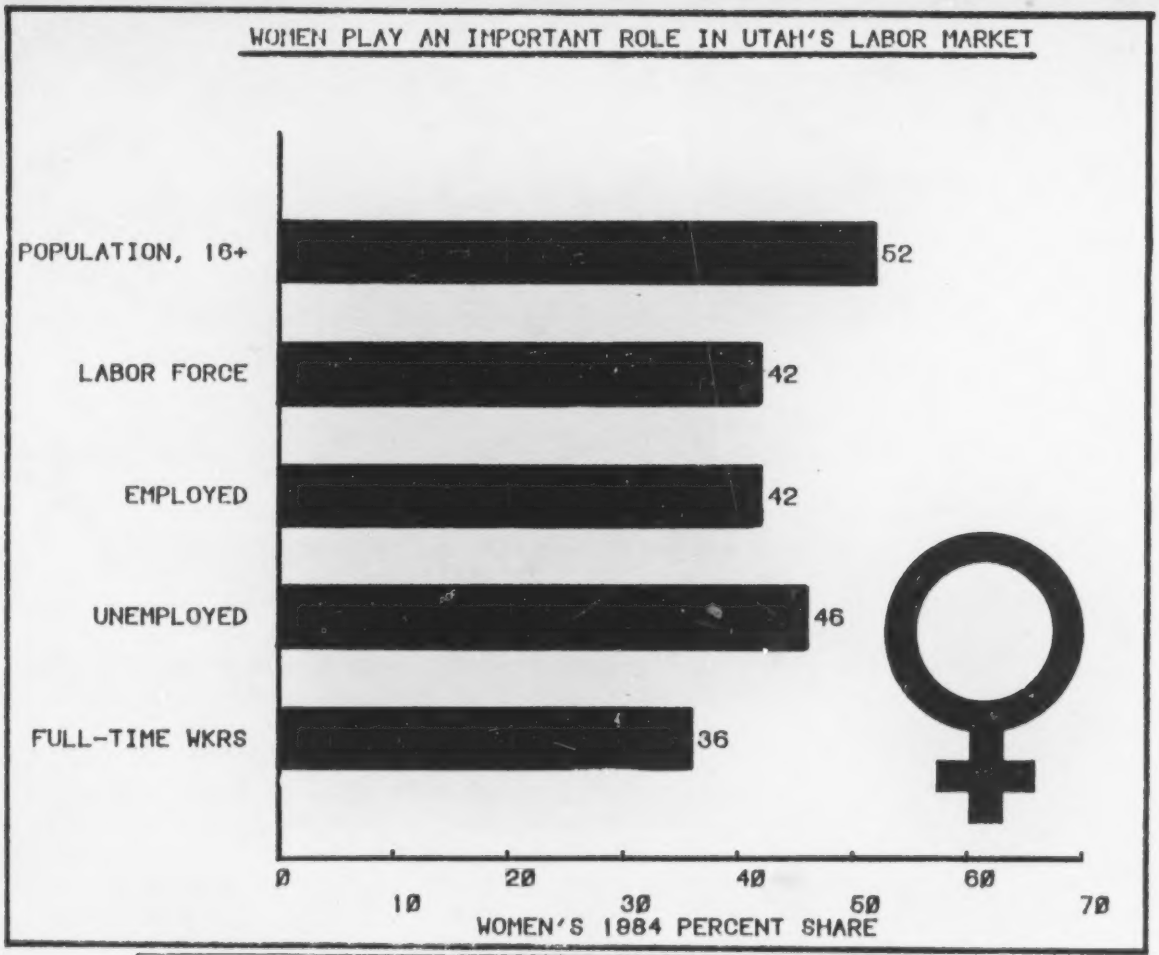


CHART 2.1
UTAH WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF POPULATION 16 YEARS AND OLDER, LABOR FORCE, EMPLOYED, UNEMPLOYED, FULL-TIME WORKERS
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGE

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

On the other hand, even though the mecca of women to the workplace has been relatively constant, it seems the influx of women into the labor force has been a source of interest to analysts for quite some time. I was interested to find an old copy of *Utah Employment Security Digest* issued April 10, 1943 which was devoted entirely to the increase in women's employment. The headline read, "33,500 Women Employed in Private Industry in Utah—Study shows Percentage of Female Workers Increases."[2] The articles, charts, and graphs which followed revealed the how and why of it all. The Department of Labor's *1956 Handbook on Women Workers* reads:

> There are more women workers today than ever before . . . never before have so many women been both homemakers and wage earners . . . Among employed women the range of jobs held is wider than in any earlier period . . . Earnings of women workers have advanced as standards of living have risen, although in general the increase in earnings has been less rapid for women than for men.[3]

Although written thirty years ago, these words are perfectly applicable to the situation today, but exactly how has the employment picture for Utah women changed? Has it really changed at all? Let's look at some cold hard statistics for the State of Utah. The discussion that follows outlines Utah women's labor force participation, their share of the employed and unemployed, and their work patterns.

PARTICIPATION RATES—Joining the Crowd

The Census for 1950, indicated that 25.2 percent (or just over a quarter) of Utah's working age women had joined the labor force. Notice that this rate falls significantly below the national average of 30.0 percent for the same time period. Now, lets race ahead to 1984. Last year, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated a 54.4 percent female participation rate for Utah (incidently, a figure more than double the 1950 rate). While not significantly different, the 53.6 percent rate for the entire country lagged slightly behind Utah's ratio. Obviously, even though Utah women may have initially lingered behind the rest of the nation in terms of labor force participation, they have certainly caught up now. Utah's higher female participation rate probably reflects its youthful population (younger women are more likely to work). On the other hand, while Utah women's rates have been climbing, male participation rates have been on the decline (Utah male rates still register above national figures). The decline in men's work force participation has come about primarily as a result of earlier retirement.

In 1950, the variance between male and female participation rates gaped by 57.3 percentage points. This gap had narrowed to 29.5 points by 1980—almost half the 1950 difference. In fact, women have accounted for the entire increase in Utah's overall participation rate during the last 30 years, as the male participation dropped significantly. U.S. figures followed the same patterns although the difference between the sexes' participation started out narrower and did not close as much in the same amount of time as did Utah's.

By looking at data for Census years 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980 it is possible to perceive a number of trends in labor activity for different age groups. In Utah, female participation rates increased across the board. The largest gains occurred for Utah women in the 25 to 34 and 35 to 44 year-old age groupings (typically the young motherhood years)—rates for both these age groups grew by over 31 percentage points. Women over 65 experienced the least increase in work force participation (and remain the least likely of all age groups to work). Nevertheless, compared with the 23.3 point drop in the comparably aged male rate, the fact women in this age group increased their labor force participation at all over the 1950 rate appears significant.

Annual average estimates from the Current Population Survey (CPS) provide us with an idea of trends in labor force participation during the past four years. Not surprisingly, Utah women have continued to participate in the labor force in increasing proportions. After all, it is hardly probable that women would abruptly cease their exodus to the work place.

Currently, women in the 20 to 24 year-old age group are the most likely to be paid employees. These women show a participation rate of 71.1 percent—almost three-fourths of the female population in their early 20s have a job or are looking for work! Remember, too, that a significant number of women this age are enrolled in school. Since a high proportion of these women are single, and unmarrieds have a greater likelihood of joining the work force, their high participation rate shouldn't come as a big shock to most of us. For men, on the other hand, peak labor force participation occurs in the 35 to 44 year-old bracket (96.7 were percent in the labor force during 1984). Participation rates between the sexes most closely approximate each other for teenagers. Girls 16 to 19 years-old register a 64.2 percent rate, boys 68.4 percent.

WIVES AND MOTHERS

We already know that single women are more likely to participate in the labor force, but how exactly do rates vary between the different marital statuses? Our good statistical buddy, the Census, provides a

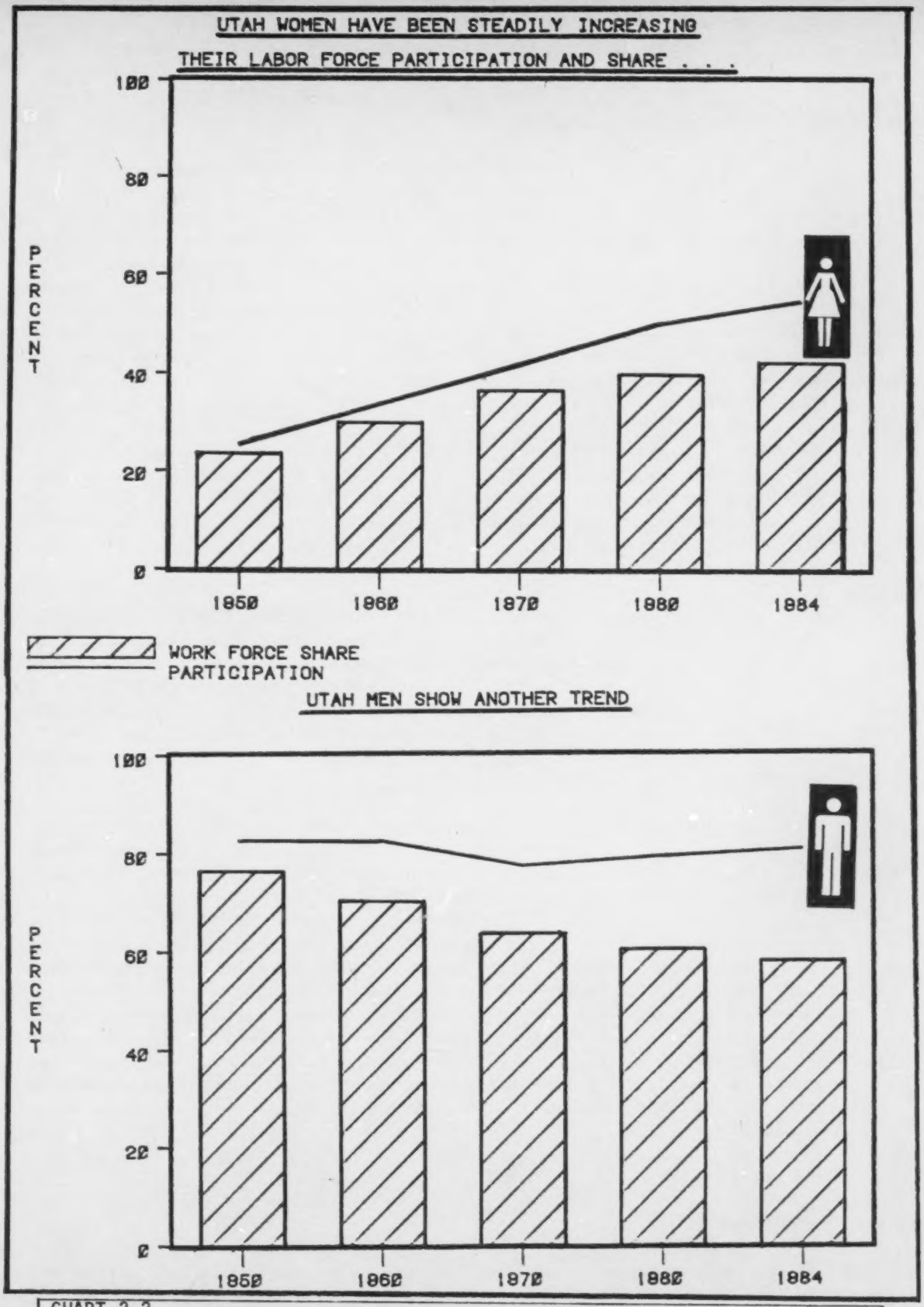


CHART 2.2
UTAH LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE AND SHARE BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, 1980, 1984

SOURCE: (1950-1980) U.S. CENSUS BUREAU, (1984) CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

fairly good idea of how many wives and mothers work. During 1960, 29.3 percent of Utah's married women (with husbands present) belonged to the work force. By 1980, the participation rate for married women had risen 16 percentage points to 45.3 percent. Annual average estimates from the Current Population Survey indicate that in 1984 over half of the married women (52.1 percent) in the State have a job or are looking for one. Obviously, married women have been in the vanguard of the female rush to the work place. Single (never-married) females in 1984 took part in the labor force at a rate of 71.5 percent. Women who were heads of families (with other relatives) had the next highest participation rate after singles (65.2 percent).

In the past, mothers typically opted to stay home with their young children. However, this trend has been changing. In fact, one of the largest negative reactions to the influx of women into the work force has been leveled against mothers who work. The 1960 Census tells us that only 18.3 percent of wives with children under six years of age held paid positions or were looking for such at the time. By 1980, the portion of mothers (with pre-schoolers) in the labor force had almost doubled so that more than one-third of these mothers were participants. However, Utah moms are still much more likely to stay at home while their children are young. U.S. figures for 1980 show that more than 45 percent of American mothers with youngsters under six had joined the labor force. On the other hand, Utah women with young children but no husband (at least in the home) participated in greater proportions than did women nationally. Utah mothers with children between 6 and 17 years (only), took part in the labor force at levels almost 20 percentage points above mothers with preschoolers. In fact, mothers of children this age with no husband in the home proved to have the highest participation rates of all—84.5 percent were employed or looking employment.

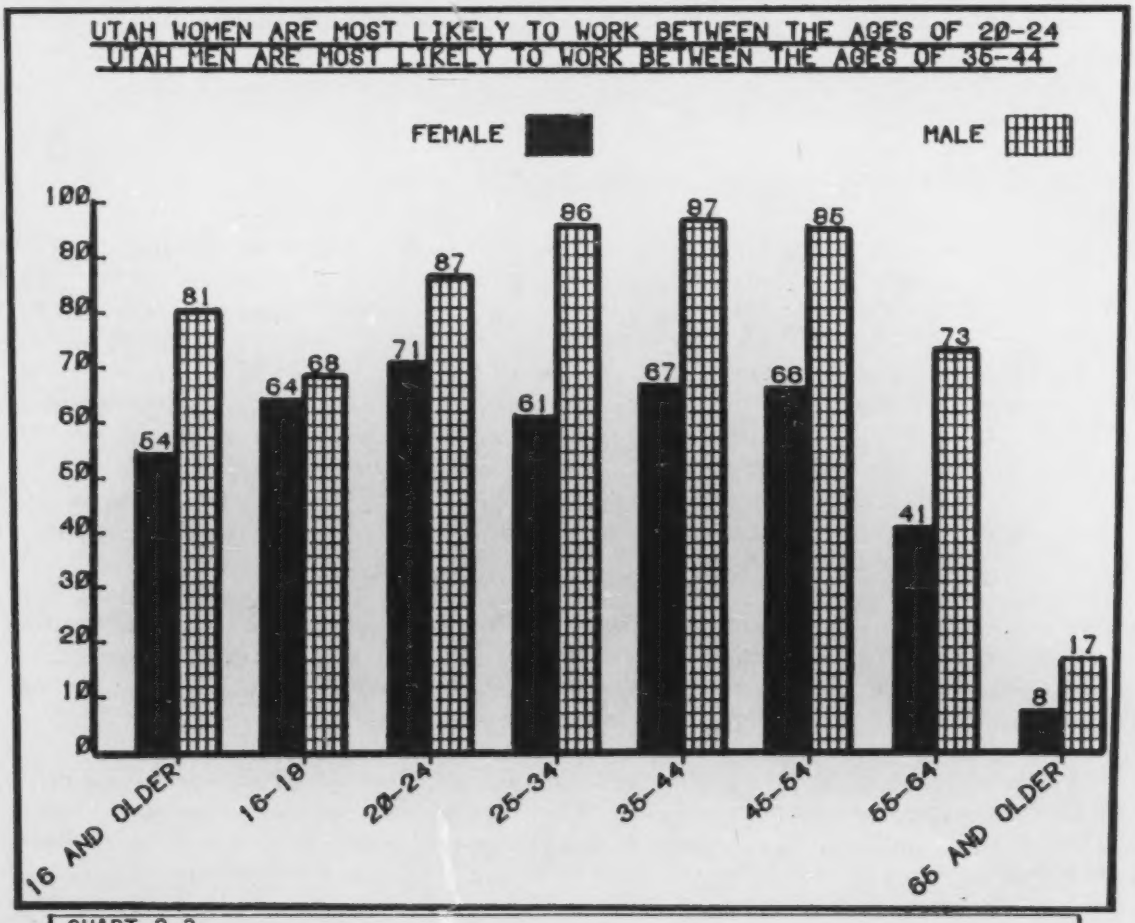


CHART 2.3
UTAH CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE AND SHARE BY AGE AND SEX
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGE

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

TEXT TABLE 7

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION BY SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 AND 1984

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1984
UTAH					
FEMALE	23.6	29.8	36.5	39.8	42.2
MALE	76.4	70.2	63.5	60.2	57.8
UNITED STATES					
FEMALE	28.2	32.9	38.1	42.6	43.8
MALE	71.8	67.1	61.9	57.4	56.2

SOURCE: 1950 - 1980, CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1984, CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY (ANNUAL AVERAGE).

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE—Swelling the Ranks

We know that employment participation for women is rising, but how large a part do females play in the overall labor force? Approximately 304,000 women belonged to Utah's work force in 1984—42.2 percent of the total. Although Utah women show a higher participation rate than U.S. women generally, American women make up a larger portion of the labor force itself—43.8 percent. Back in 1950, women made up not quite a fourth of Utah's civilian labor force. U.S. women held an even larger share—they made up 28 percent of the American work force. As more and more women have moved into paid employment, raising their participation rates, they also made up a larger and larger portion of the labor force itself. This relationship is only logical, particularly as men began to retire at an earlier age. When the 1980 Census was taken, the female share of Utah's work force had swelled to almost 40 percent. Women, countrywide, had an even larger share of the employment pie—they accounted for more than 42 percent of the work force.

Between 1950 and 1980, Utah's labor force expanded more than one and one-half times and by 1984 averaged about 721,000 participants. Female entrants accounted for just about half of this increase. While this may sound impressive, during the same time period, the total U.S. labor force grew by only about 80 percent; but women accounted for approximately 62 percent of the growth.

How is the labor force distributed by age? Well, teenage women in the Beehive State outnumber their male counterparts in the labor force. Females 20-24 years old maintain the next highest ratio of workers (46.3) percent. It may be interesting to note that women 55 and older make up the smallest share of their age bracket's labor force. This fact holds true in spite of the fact that men have been retiring earlier. It appears that women of the younger generation are more apt to work (probably

TEXT TABLE 8

UTAH
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS
1984 ANNUAL AVERGE

	TOTAL	MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT	SINGLE, NEVER MARRIED	OTHER MARITAL STATUS	HEAD, WITH OTHER RELATIVES
TOTAL 16 YEARS & OLDER	67.0	67.4	74.7	54.0	80.9
FEMALE	54.4	52.1	71.5	45.5	65.2
MALE	80.7	82.5	77.5	74.5	82.9

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

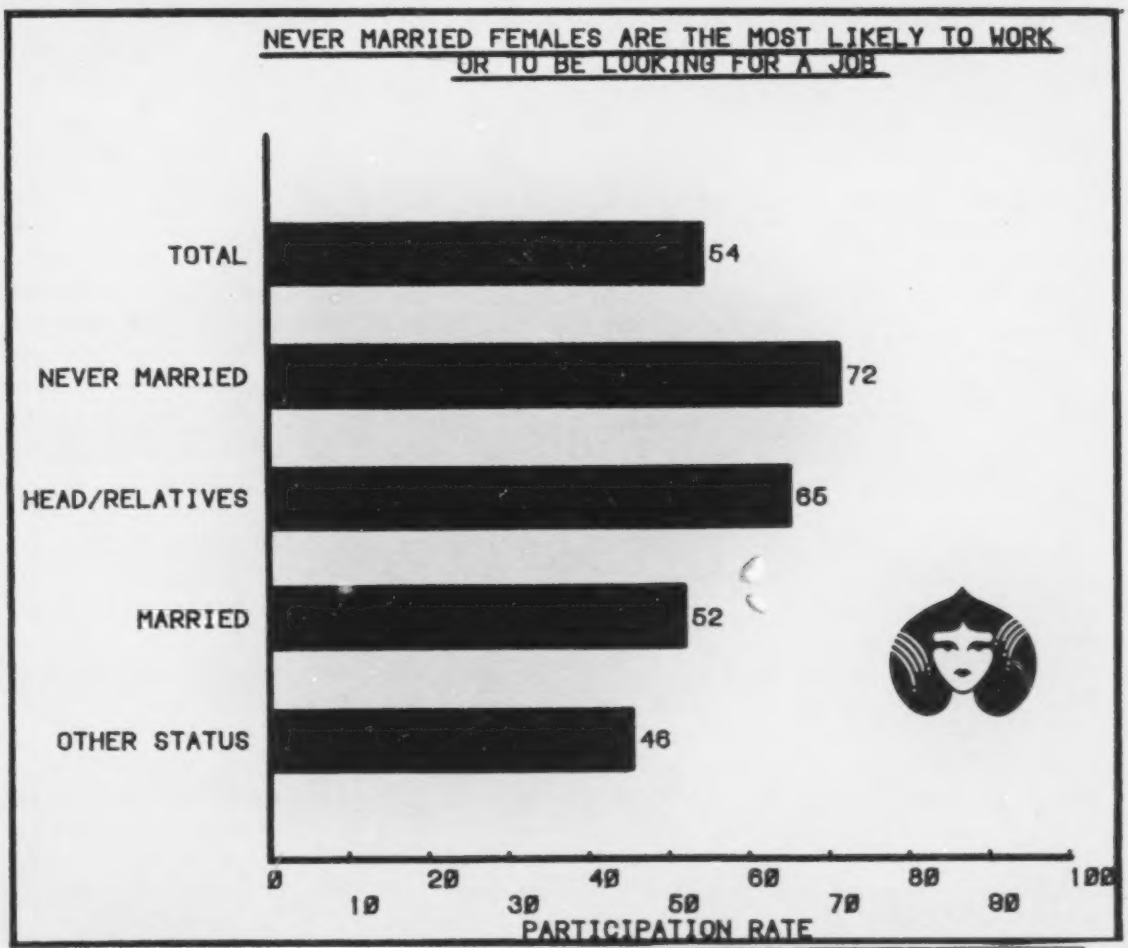


CHART 2.4
UTAH FEMALE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE BY MARITAL STATUS
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGE

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

because of the recent changes in society's view of working women) than are older women even though their families are probably raised.

CPS estimates for 1984 indicate that married women (whose husbands are present) make up the majority of the female labor force, 61 percent to be exact. Never-marrieds, with a 24 percent share, rank as the next largest group of workers. It just so happens that the labor force distribution between marital statuses is almost the same as the population distribution.

Inasmuch as many married women are working, it is not surprising to find that, in 1979, (based on Census figures) both partners worked in 52.2 percent of all Utah's married couple families. Nationwide, the fraction of couples where both worked was lower—only 50.8 percent. However, Utah women were more likely to work part-time while their husbands worked full-time (almost 20 percent of married-couple families, compared to about 15 percent for the nation). Also, Utah wives showed a greater tendency to have remained at home, if their husbands were employed than did wives nationwide. In 1979, 36.1 percent of Utah married-couple families were made up of a husband who worked and a wife who did not. In the entire United States, only 32.5 percent of husband-wife families showed the same employment status.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Historically, female unemployment rates have exceeded male unemployment rates. As a matter of fact, you could almost say that women's rates have always, in depression and boom, surpassed male rates and not be very far wrong—well at least until the most recent recession. Let's take a look at average annual unemployment rates for 1982 and 1983. In 1982, 7.6 percent of the female labor force was unemployed compared to 7.9 percent of the men. In 1983, the gap got even wider; women had an unemployment rate of 8.9 percent compared to the men's rate of 9.4 percent. Well, by 1984, the pattern had reverted to its original trend—women's unemployment was a full percentage point higher than men's. Why the anomaly? The distribution of women's employment by industry will be discussed in a later chapter, but for now, let me just say that women tend to work in service industries as opposed to heavy industries (manufacturing, mining, or construction) where the majority of workers are men. If you will think for a moment, you will realize that the sectors hardest hit by the recent recession were not services oriented but construction and heavy industry. The shift in the male/female rates occurred as men in these industries were laid-off while women retained their service related jobs. Moreover, occupational patterns have something to do with the whole situation. Women tend to be concentrated in clerical and service occupations—those jobs least affected by hard times regardless of industry.

Unemployment varies not only by sex but for different age groups, too. Women tend to show the lowest unemployment rates in the 20 to 24 year-old classification, while men tend to experience the least joblessness between the ages of 35 to 44. You may notice that these are the ages that women and men display their highest respective participation rates. Single women generally display the highest ratio of unemployment as far as marital status goes. This reflects the fact that those in the age group with the highest unemployment (teenagers) are usually unmarried. Married women are most likely of any in the female labor force to be employed (rather than unemployed).

Just as women tend to experience higher unemployment rates, they also make up a larger portion of the "discouraged worker" group. Discouraged workers are those that want a job but are not looking for one (and hence are not counted in labor force statistics) because they feel for one reason or

another that they will not be able to find work. Generally, women in the U.S. make up three-fifths of the individuals in this category. While most women say job market factors rather than personal factors (such as age, education, or handicap) keep them from getting a job, a substantial number of women experience difficulties because they have little job experience, little schooling, few skills, and in general are not adequately prepared for the job market.

WORKING NINE TO FIVE

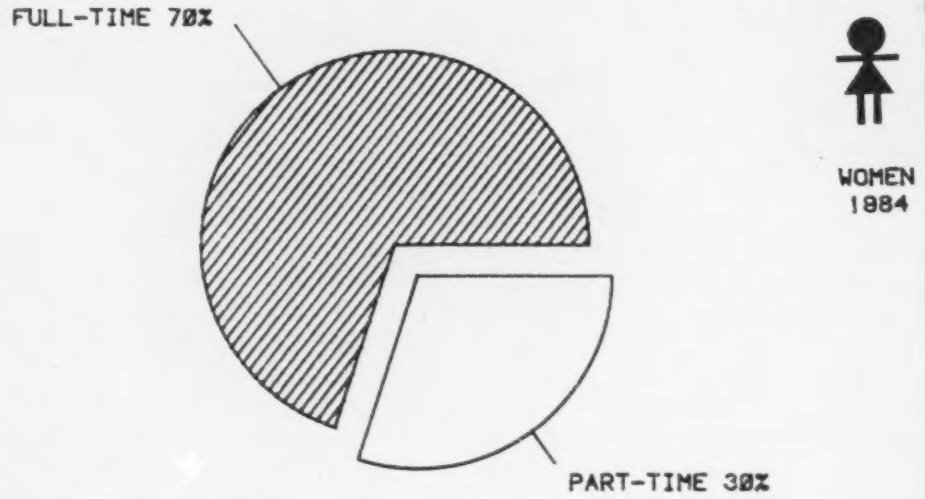
Even though the gap between male and female participation in the labor force may be narrowing, the work patterns of women and men still differ significantly. For one thing, women are much more likely to work part-time than are men; and a higher portion of Utah women work part-time than do women the country over. In 1984, 30 percent of Utah's female labor force worked part-time or were only looking for part-time work—only 10 percent of Utah's men were in the same category. Nationwide, only 22 percent of the female work force and 8 percent of the male work force fell in the part-time group. Given these male/female ratios, it is not surprising that women make up the majority of the part-time labor force. In both the Utah and in the U.S., women make up over two-thirds of those working part-time. While women usually register the highest general unemployment rates, their part-time jobless rates usually fall short of those of their male counterparts.

Not only do women make up a disproportionate share of part-time workers, but when they are on full-time schedules they lean towards a shorter work week than do men. Current Population Survey figures for 1984 indicate that while the full-time female work week in Utah averaged a little over 42 hours, Utah men work about 47 hours per week—a difference of approximately 5 hours. Men, also, display a greater tendency to work over-time than women. In 1984, 28 percent of the Utah male work force labored more than 49 hours per week compared to a little over seven percent of the women.

Why are women less likely to work full-time, or when they do work full-time to put in fewer hours of over-time than men? One explanation could be that women for the most part shoulder more of the burden for children/home and put in less time at work in order to take care of these responsibilities. Also, married women often are able to spend less time in the workplace, because they are not usually the primary wage earner. In addition, the male/female mix between industries and occupations may account for some of the differences as men are concentrated in industries and occupations more likely to offer over-time.

Does the fact that women generally work fewer hours than men mean they are less devoted to the labor force? It used to be thought (and still is in some circles) that women were "secondary" workers with only a marginal attachment to the job market. However, recent research suggests that women basically can be divided in to two groups—"workers" and "nonworkers" with the former always in the labor force and the latter always out.[4] The central finding of another study pointed out that "substantial proportions of women with children both in and outside of marriage, plan lifelong commitments to their jobs, every bit as strong as the work commitments shown for men."[5] The longer women work, the more their life (social as well as economic) depends on their job and the harder it is for them to give it up. These costs tend to keep women at their jobs. A recent SPIEGEL, Inc. survey indicates than about 70 percent of the Salt Lake female participants considered their work a career rather than just a job.[6] Nevertheless, a number of women do fit the old view frequently dropping in and out of the job market.

NEARLY ONE IN THREE OF UTAH'S FEMALE LABOR FORCE PARTICIPANTS WORKS PART-TIME . . .



WHILE ONLY ONE IN TEN UTAH MEN WORK ARE PART-TIME WORKERS

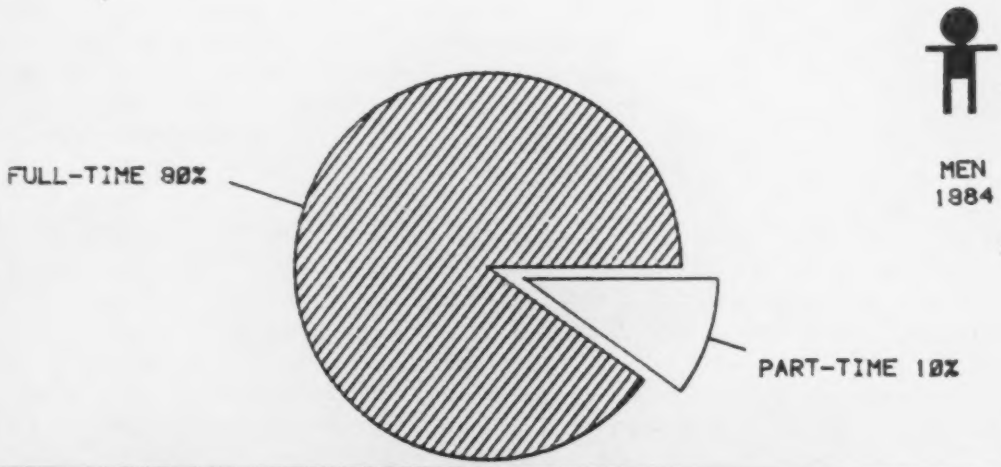


CHART 2.5
UTAH PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME LABOR FORCE PARTICIPANTS BY SEX
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGE

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

Women's attachment to the job market is manifesting itself in a longer worklife. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that the number of years a 20 year-old woman could expect to spend in the work force nearly doubled between 1950 and 1977 (the most recent projection available). The average 20 year-old woman back in 1950 could expect to work about 14.5 years. However, the average 20 year-old in 1977 could anticipate spending 26 years as a member of the paid labor force. This means female gains in worklife outdistanced gains in life expectancy by about 2 to 1. However, during the same time period, worklife expectancy for men actually declined, largely as a result of early retirement.[7]

Although women are working greater and greater portions of their lives, data from the Current Population Survey indicates that as of January 1983, U.S. working women had only been with the same employer a median of 3.3 years. Men, on the other hand, had worked for the same employer a median of 5.1 years—almost 2 years longer than women. However, in the younger age groups (say under 30 years) there was little or no difference in the length of tenure for men and women. After that point, the gap widens. In fact, the widest deviation in tenure for the sexes (almost seven years) came in the 50-64 year-old interval. The difference in younger and older women's employer tenure seems to be a reflection of divergent generational work patterns. Women in the oldest age groups usually made full-time homemaking a career during the majority of their lives. Younger women, on the other hand, are more likely to marry later, delay childbirth, combine homemaking with an outside career, and in the main part, attach themselves more firmly to a particular job and employer.

WHY THE INFLUX?

We know women are joining the ranks of the employed in ever increasing numbers. But why? What has brought about this ever expanding female labor force?

For increasing numbers of women, work force participation has become an economic necessity. Nancy Barrett has pointed out:

> Of the nearly 37 million women in the labor force in 1975, 8.5 million were single (never married); 6.9 million were widowed, divorced, or separated; and 9.5 million were married to husbands who earned less than $10,000 per year. (The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that it took $9,838 for a family of four to maintain a low standard of living in 1975.) These figures total 24.9 million women—68 percent of the female labor force—who are clearly working because of necessity.[8]

Not only are an increasing numbers of women compelled to work out of decided monetary need but many work to provide their families with a higher standard of living. A National Association of Home Builders economist has suggested that most families must have at least two incomes to afford a new house.[9] Virginia Slims American Women's Opinion Poll (conducted by the Roper Organization in 1980) further confirmed this theory. Responses from the survey indicate that 43 percent of working women work to bring in extra money and 27 percent work to support themselves.[10]

The point I am trying to get across here is that the increased numbers of single women in the population imply, just by their very existence, a certain amount of labor force growth. In addition, income provided by married women often is absolutely necessary to her family's economic well-being and is frequently becoming a major source of sustenance particularly during times of high unemployment.

Falling fertility, smaller families, and delayed child birth makes it easier for married women to combine a job with home responsibilities. Instead of choosing *between* homemaking or a career, now women are choosing *both*. Labor-saving devices and convenience foods also relieve part of the burden of housework responsibilities (although many of these items were initially marketed as a response to working women's needs).

Women have also been obtaining more education providing access to more interesting and better paying jobs. The relationship between increased education and delayed marriage suggests that women who postpone marriage are likely to obtain more schooling than those who marry young—and more and more women are delaying marriage. The additional earnings a woman receives when she has a better education also act as an incentive to keep her in the labor force. Indeed, college educated women have the highest labor force participation rates. Not only do women today have better access to higher paying jobs, but many women find that paid employment offers them opportunities to use and develop skills and talents not necessarily needed within the home. Fourteen percent of the women in the Virginia Slims survey (reported above) said that the primary reason they worked was to provide them with something interesting to do.[11]

Changes in social mores make employment more acceptable for certain groups of women such as young mothers. In fact, media hype about a women's place being in the office makes labor force participation seem almost mandatory for self-fulfillment. The "Women's Lib" movement seems to have changed the way society views a woman's role, and work outside the home has now become acceptable. For the most part, women now feel greater freedom to enter the workplace.

A survey conducted by Market Opinion Research indicates that even between 1975 and 1982 women's feelings about work force participation have undergone a transition. In 1975, only five percent of the women questioned felt that being mainly a job holder or career woman ranked as their "ideal lifestyle." By 1982, the proportion females with this preference had risen to 12 percent. On the other hand, 20 percent of the 1982 respondents felt that being a homemaker was still the best way of life for them. The ratio of women with this preference changed very little between the two survey years and this particular opinion was directly linked to the woman's age. In other words, the older the woman the more likely she was to perceive homemaking as the most perfect lifestyle. A little over one-fifth of the 1982 sample expressed the feeling that combining job with home responsibilities—using child care as necessary—constituted the most desired state of affairs. However, nearly half of the survey group felt that the premiere lifestyle was to stay home with children when young, and to combine homemaking and a career at other life stages.[12] It seems clear that more and more women see job and career as primary goals along with raising a family.

Perhaps the most important reason for the influx of women into the labor force can be stated simply—the jobs were there. In the past 30 years, tremendous growth has occurred in clerical and service jobs—positions traditionally held by women. Between 1972 and 1980 secretaries proved to the biggest job gainers of all.[13] Industries such as banking, insurance, and real estate have boomed—sectors that have characteristically employed large numbers of women. Traditional "female" jobs have been ready and waiting, offering an enticement to those not already employed.

Emma Rothschild, a professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, found that 70 percent of all new private-sector jobs created between 1973 and 1980 were low-paid (mostly women's jobs) in the retail and service sectors.[14] Several economists have argued that one reason for the growth in low paying jobs comes from the "deindustrialization" of America—companies shifting capital from heavy manufacturing to more lucrative short-term or overseas investments.

Another reason cited for the increase has to do with automation and what some consider to be an "efficient" division of labor. Harry Braverman has advanced the theory that as automation occurs low-paid assembly-line workers, each performing one repetitive process, replace the skilled mechanic, and so on. Braverman points out that the "dumb" jobs that are left after automation and a redivision of labor are many times considered "women's work." The reorganization of work that frequently occurs with automation also tends to eliminate jobs at the middle of the skill spectrum. The obliteration of this portion of jobs is often referred to as the "disappearing middle." There is an inclination to have many more low-skilled jobs at the bottom (jobs likely slotted for women) than there are managerial jobs at the top—and a growing polarization between them. Sometimes the disappearing middle includes jobs that have traditionally been skilled opportunities for females.[15] Anna Lee Saxenian, an editorial board member of the monthly economic magazine, *Dollars and Sense*, has said, "We may be approaching a situation like that in some industrialization Third World countries where there has been a big increase in jobs for women—often more than for men—but the jobs don't lead anywhere."[16]

LABOR FORCE NONPARTICIPATION—There's No Place Like Home

With all these persuasive reasons why women should speed on down to their local Job Service Office and find a paying position, what reasons do females have for not participating in the labor force? The Current Population Survey (CPS) shows that in 1984 almost three-fourths Utah's female non-participants stated that traditional home responsibilities kept them out of the workplace, about the same ratio as women nationwide. Only 3 percent of the male nonparticipants gave the same response. Obviously, while women have been moving out of the home into the work force, men have not been moving into the home to take up the slack as full-time househusbands.

So, most women who don't join the labor force are taking care of their homes and families. What other reasons are presented by the female population for not working or looking for a job? Seven percent of Utah females in 1984 did not join the labor force because they were still in school (compared to 21 percent of male nonparticipants). The CPS indicates that 17 percent of the women surveyed gave "other reasons" for not being in the work force—the majority of nonparticipating men fell in this category. When you understand that the "other" bracket includes retirees, it becomes clear why the bulk of the male nonparticipants gave this response. One might conclude women do not participate in the labor force primarily because of home responsibilities, while the principal reason men fail to be part of the labor force is because they are retired.

IN CONCLUSION

Utah's women are going to work in record numbers and they are making up a growing share of the State's labor force. However, this influx has been gradual with most of the increase coming from young mothers and married women. Women have been entering the job market because of economic necessity, because of a desire for fulfillment, because work outside the home is now socially acceptable, and because the job availability. Utah women generally experience higher unemployment rates and make up a disproportionately large share of the State's discouraged workers. Moreover, they are more likely to work part-time than their male counterparts; but nevertheless show a strong commitment to their careers.

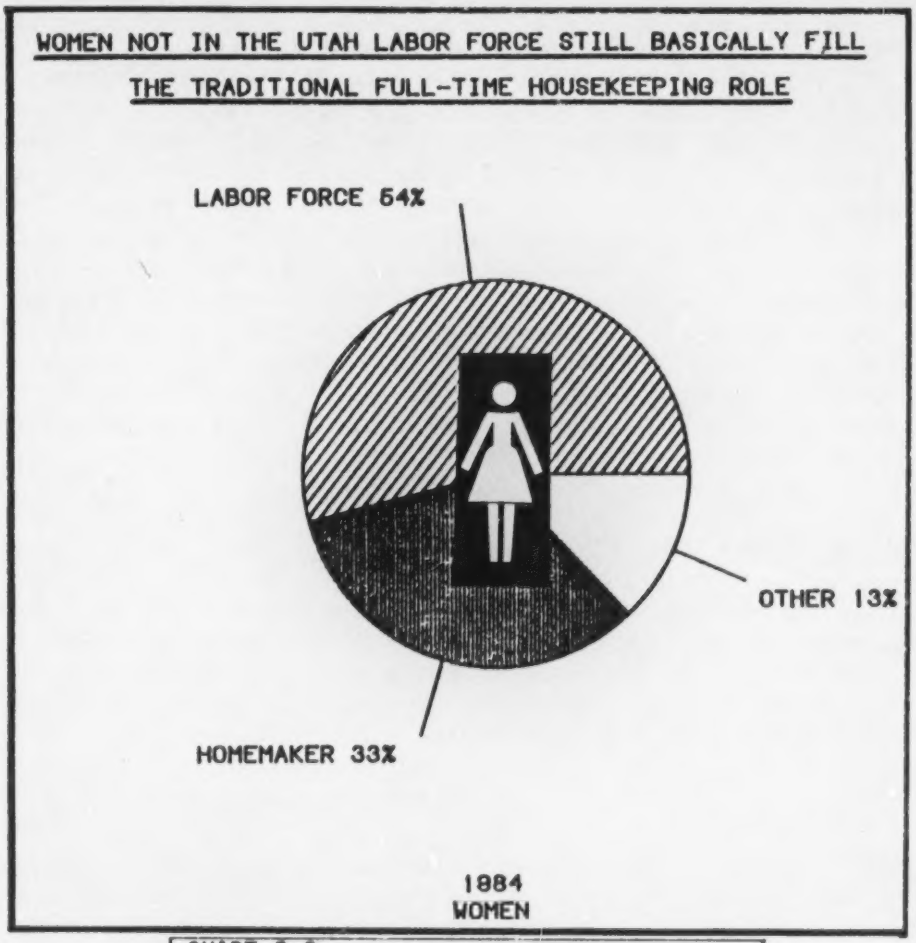


CHART 2.6
UTAH FEMALE LABOR FORCE NONPARTICIPANTS
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION BY REASON
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGE

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

CHAPTER 3
OCCUPATIONS

Utah's Pink Collar Ghetto

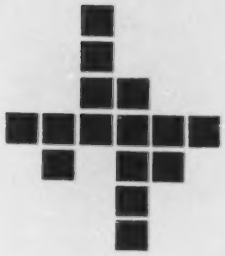
"We have heard a good deal about the oppressed and degraded women of Utah . . . This string has been tuned and played upon until it appears to have snapped . . . They have more power and more rights than they have anywhere on this green earth . . . An incident which calls up the privileges which the women of Utah enjoy, lately occurred in Salt Lake City. Miss Phoebe Couzens, of St Louis, and Miss Georgie Snow, daughter of the Attorney-General of the Territory, were admitted to the bar in the District, and the ceremonies were imposing."

Excerpt from *The Missouri Republican,*
"The Oppressed Women of Utah," 1872

CHAPTER 3

OCCUPATIONS

Utah's Pink Collar Ghetto



You've heard their names blasting out of your TV sets—Sally Ride, first U.S. astronaut and woman in space; Geraldine Ferraro, first female national vice presidential candidate; Sandra O'Connor, first woman to be appointed associate supreme court justice; Elizabeth Dole, Secretary of Transportation, and so on and so on. Every day it seems more and more women pop up in nontraditional jobs—the lady doctor, lawyer, flagperson, bus driver. But to what degree and how rapidly are women moving into those jobs traditionally dominated by men? Although women are making inroads into a number of those male sanctums of employment, progress appears slow; and in actuality, the overall occupational framework has changed very little. In fact, there is a ghetto in Utah, not a ghetto of race, not a ghetto of place, but a ghetto of female "pink collar" jobs where most working women congregate.

In 1984, the Current Population Survey (CPS) estimates that about 42 percent of all Utah's managerial and professional positions were held by women. Not bad representation, as women made up about 44 percent of the employed civilians in the State. However, Utah females held only about 9 percent of precision production, crafts and repairs occupations jobs. At the opposite end of the spectrum, 80 percent of the administrative support employees—basically clerical jobs—turned out to be women. There appears to be no significant difference between U.S. and Utah ratios for these occupational groupings. Please note that even using extremely broad categories, occupational segregation, or the pink collar ghetto, is plain to see.

TEXT TABLE 9

UNITED STATES AND UTAH
SEGREGATION OF WORKING WOMEN
INTO FEMALE DOMINATED OCCUPATIONS
1900 - 1980

PERCENTAGE OF OCCUPATION FEMALE	CUMMULATIVE PERCENT OF EMPLOYED WOMEN IN THESE OCCUPATIONS					
	UNITED STATES					UTAH
	1900	1920	1940	1960	1980	1980
90 OR MORE	38	31	34	28	32	26
80 OR MORE	42	42	40	42	49	51
70 OR MORE	54	43	49	50	62	58
60 OR MORE	56	49	61	56	65	68
50 OR MORE	60	60	65	73	76	76

SOURCE: U.S. Data, 1900-1960, Valerie Kincaid Oppenheimer, The Female Labor Force in the United States; 1970, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor. Utah Data, 1980 Census.

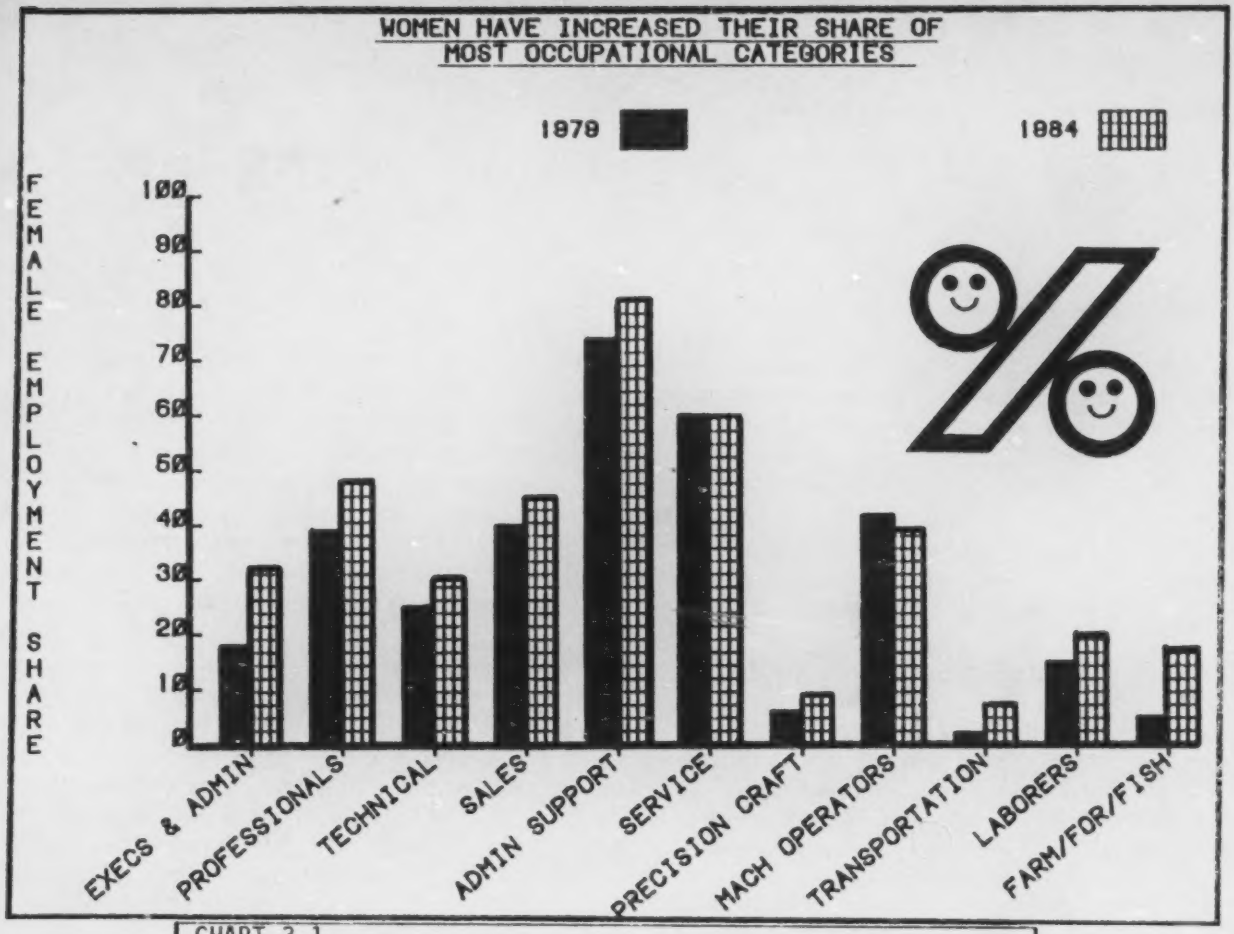


CHART 3.1
UTAH FEMALE SHARE OF EMPLOYED PERSONS BY OCCUPATION
1979 AND 1984

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU AND CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION BY SEX

Although it appears on the surface that sexual isolation by profession is declining, Linda J. Waite points out that in some senses occupational segregation is as widespread now as it was at the turn of the century. In 1900, 60 percent of all women workers in the United States were employed in occupations where at least half of their co-workers were women. This concentration has *increased*, so that by 1980, three-fourths of all working women were concentrated in occupations with a female majority.[1] Utah women are in the same boat. Comparable figures for the State display no significant statistical variance from national data. In 1980, over one-third of the experienced female labor force in Utah worked in only seven (seven—retail sales, bookkeeper, cashier, secretary, food service worker, elementary school teacher and household worker) of the 514 different occupational categories designated by the Census Bureau.[2]

A detailed study of modifications in the occupational segregation of women employed throughout the country after World War II found that segregation increased slightly between 1950 and 1960, but declined by a small amount in the following decade. This research project reported that the increase in the 50s was the result of rapid growth in "female" clerical and service occupations and the decrease in the 60s came about as men and women moved into occupations dominated by the opposite sex. However, in the two decades studied, *more men* moved into traditional "women's jobs" than vice versa. University of Illinois labor economists, Francine Blau and Wallace Hendricks concluded that if new employees had been assigned to occupations without regard to sex, the shifts in occupational domination would have been much larger.[3]

FORGING AHEAD

Because of changes in the government's occupational classifications in recent years, comparisons between years presents difficulties. However, good, detailed occupational data for Utah is available from the 1970 and 1980 censuses. In point of fact, most traditionally "female" occupations are not so densely packed with women as they were in the previous decade. Men, too, continued the trend by making a few inroads in eliminating sex stereo-typing with respect to jobs. Woman made up a little over 95 percent of the telephone operators in 1970 Utah. By 1980, their share had dropped by 10 percentage points to only about 85 percent. Utah women in 1980 held a smaller share of registered nurse, kindergarten teacher, maid (in male cases, housemen), special education teacher, and personnel clerk positions. However, even though the mix of sexes in certain occupations has been shifting, most jobs conventionally thought of as "women's work" remain more than fourth-fifths female.

Where have women been making the largest occupational gains? Turning again to the 1970 and 1980 censuses, it appears that women made the largest gains in insurance adjuster, examiner, and investigator jobs where they increased their share by over 40 percentage points. They also make up a substantially larger share of Utah's hotel clerks, computer operators, science technicians, and public relations specialists. The number of women bus drivers is also on the rise (a fact Utah Transit Authority riders already know). The evidence tends to show that women are making a move into professional, technical, and managerial occupations at a faster pace than into blue collar, mechanical or structural jobs.

How have women advanced in what have been regarded as "men's jobs?" Let's take a look. First, a warning: *use these statistics with caution*. In 1970, the number of surveyed women working in several of these occupations was so small that the figures may not be all that reliable. However, they do provide us with an *idea* of how things are changing. Let's look at a real good "man's job"—engineering. (I remember being one of about five female freshman engineering students at Utah State University back in the early 70s, and I think these figures sound reasonable.) The 1970 Census indicated that only 1.6 percent of the State's engineers were women. By 1980, women had increased their share to 3.1 percent. Obviously, there has not been a mass migration of women into the engineering field. What about doctors? Not quite six percent of Utah's doctors in 1970 were women. By 1980, the fraction of women physicians had almost doubled. The increase in female lawyers and judges was even more impressive—10.2 percent in 1980 compared to 3.3 percent in 1970 (plus more and more law students are women). Females have increased their share of several business related occupations as well. In 1980, women made up 20.6 percent of purchasing managers, up almost 15.0 percentage points from 1970. Females could claim just about 28 percent of all management analyst jobs, nearly doubling their 1970 share. The number of women economists is also rapidly increasing. Granted, there weren't all that many in 1970, but by 1980 they made up almost 38 percent of the total. The 1970 Census didn't show any female architects or airline pilots in Utah, but by 1980 women made up 7.4 and 1.6 percent of these professions respectively. All in all, women have been moving, albeit slowly, into those professions dominated by men.

STUCK IN A RUT

On the other hand, although women may be breaking through some occupational barriers, a number of those typically "female" occupations have become even more sex segregated. For example, women actually increased their share of the secretarial and typist professions between 1970 and 1980. As of

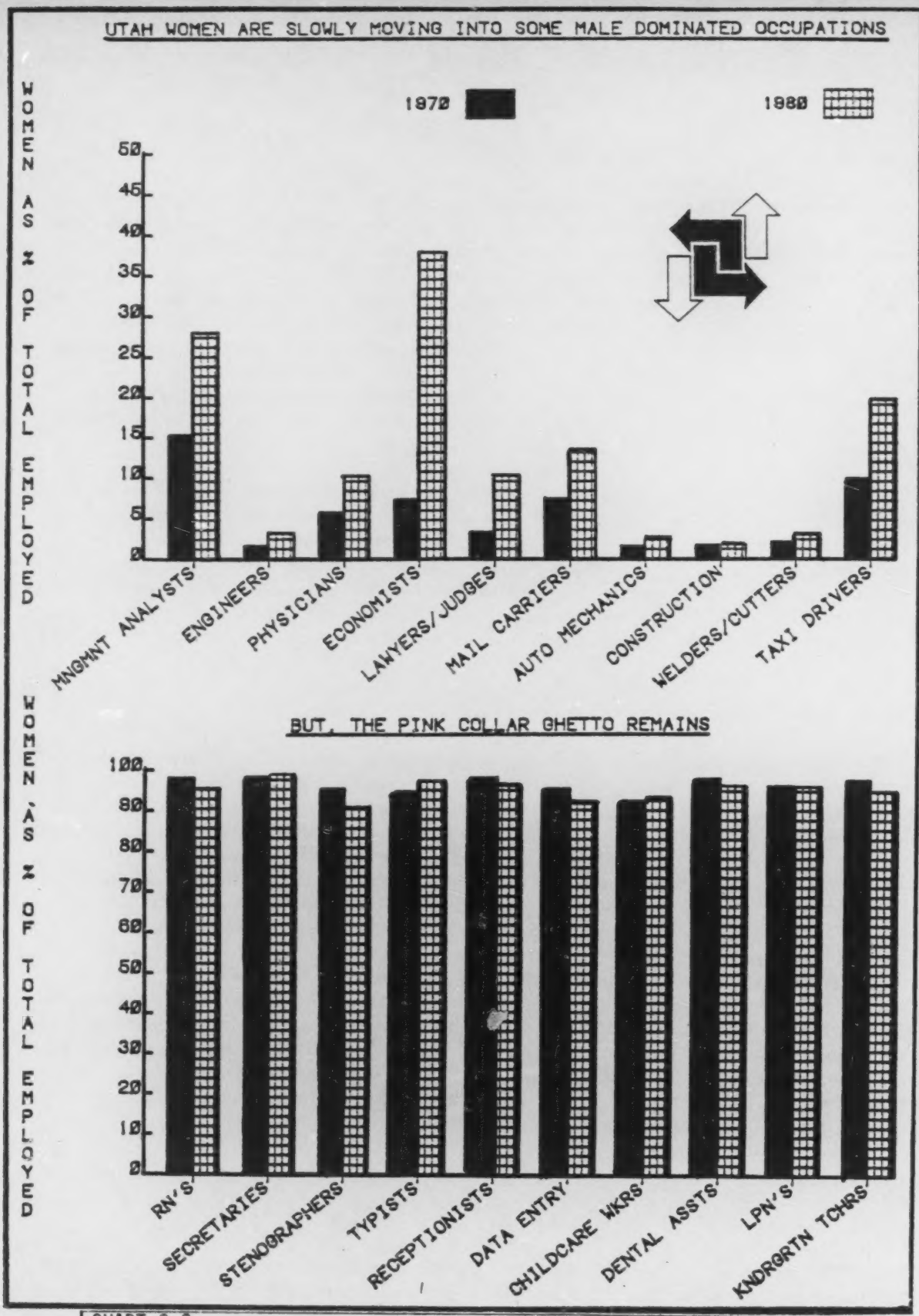


CHART 3.2
UTAH WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS
1970 AND 1980

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

the 1980 Census, 99 percent of all Utah secretaries were women; 97 percent of all typists were female. In fact, although people talk about women's liberation and equal rights, the occupational distribution of women has not changed significantly for 40 years.

FEMALE DISTRIBUTION BY INDUSTRY

The variances in the distribution of women and men by occupation is reflected in the manner in which they are represented in various industries. In 1984, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that only 8 percent of those employed in the Utah's construction industry were women and that females made up only 15 percent of mining industry workers. Utah's women find themselves represented a little more in the transportation/communications/public utilities sector and the manufacturing industries. About one-fourth and one-third (respectively) of the workers in these sectors turn out to be females.

However, Utah's women make up approximately half of the trade, financial, government and service industries, most of the private household workers, and the *overwhelming* majority of unpaid family workers. You might have observed that industries where women make up the majority of employees, tend to also pay lower salaries than those industries where women are in the minority (unpaid family workers get even less than a low salary).

WHY WORRY?

So the sexes aren't proportionately distributed in the various occupations. Why should women (or men for that matter) care if occupational segregation remains in the workplace? After all, women are more suited to certain kinds of work and men are more suited to other kinds of labor. Right? Wrong. A 1973 flyer from the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor states:

> Jobs, with extremely rare exceptions, are sexless. Tradition rather than job content has led to labeling certain jobs as women's and others as men's. In measuring 22 inherent aptitudes and knowledge areas, a research laboratory found that there is no sex difference in 14, women excel in 6, and men excel in 2.[4]

There remain huge disadvantages to sex segregation by occupation—particularly to women. Number one on the list is low pay—and this issue may well be as important to men as it is to women since more and more two income families are appearing on the scene. While income issues will be covered in the following chapter, it is important to recognize now that "female professions" pay comparatively low salaries.

The low status and lack of opportunity for advancement in professions dominated by women constitutes another adverse effect of separate occupations for men and women. Helen Gurley Brown may have achieved her editorship of Cosmopoliton Magazine by working up from the secretarial pool and may boast about the benefits of following her example; but for many women, clerical positions are often nothing more than "dead-ends."

Sex stereo-typing of jobs yields other unfavorable consequences. When women with specific capabilities are relegated, because of their sex, to jobs which do not utilize their potential, society and

TEXT TABLE 10

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
PERCENT OF FEMALE EMPLOYED CIVILIANS
BY OCCUPATION
1984

OCCUPATION	PERCENT OF WORKERS FEMALE	
	UTAH	U.S
TOTAL	42	44
MANAGERIAL & PROFESSIONAL	40	42
EXECUTIVE & ADMINISTRATORS	32	34
PROFESSIONALS	48	48
TECHNICAL, SALES, & ADMINISTRATIVE	61	64
TECHNICAL	30	48
SALES	45	48
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT	81	80
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	60	61
PRECISION PRODUCTION, CRAFTS & REPAIRS	9	9
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS, & LABORERS	25	26
FARMING, FORESTRY & FISHING	18	16

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY, 1984

the overall economy loses. Economists will tell you that this kind of underemployment spawns the inefficient allocation of resources. The country (and the State) ends up with reduced productivity at a substantial economic cost. As a result, *everyone* is deprived of a portion of economic well-being—not just women and their children.

Nevertheless, there may be advantages to women in being "assigned" to certain occupations. Often these jobs do not require overtime, travel, or residential mobility which may make them attractive to women attempting to combine the traditional roles of wife and mother with a career.

WHY DOES THE PINK COLLAR GHETTO EXIST?

The question arises as to why women congregate in specific occupations. Let's look at some of the explanations which are advanced. After all, the U.S. does not have a centrally planned society where women are forced to take certain jobs. So, why does the phenomena occur?

Women may consciously trade off higher wages, chances for greater advancement, and job status for the flexibility and reduced demands that female occupations usually offer. In other words, women choose these kinds of jobs because they want to; they want to spend more time in familial pursuits, and these occupations offer them the opportunity to do so. However, this line of reasoning does not explain why women who plan life-long careers with no interruptions in tenure still end up in occupations that are dominated by their own sex.[5]

Women may underestimate substantially the chances that they will work later on in life. Women making their occupational choices early in life may think that Prince Charming or Mr. Rich will marry them, that he will carry them off, that they will live happily ever after, and that they will be be those "secondary" workers—traditionally moving in and out of the labor force. One survey asked young women what kind of work they wanted to be doing at age 35. The vast majority aspired to the same old female occupations—even three-fourths of the college graduates aspired to female stereo-typed jobs.[6] Economist Nancy Barrett suggests that by underestimating the time that they will spend working for a salary, women are basing their career choices on erroneous information, and thus making poor selections.[7]

Women may select predominately female occupations because they think that these are the only jobs open to them: Socialization, in spite of new role models, may lead women to believe that they are only qualified for certain jobs or that social stigma may be their lot if they choose jobs outside the traditional female realm. Let's be honest. Even in today's supposedly "liberated" society, choosing a "man's job" may not be an easy road for most women.

Women may be denied access to certain jobs because of sexual discrimination. Yes, it has got to be talked about. Employers might prefer men for some jobs because they think women are not as committed to the job as men and that training costs will be lost when their female employees leave the job. Employers may think men always do a better job than women.

Because of their preferences, employers may possibly hire men and women for very different entry-level jobs. Who hasn't heard stories about women college graduates being hired as secretaries while their male classmates were hired as management trainees? Even though this kind of discrimination tends to be based on misinformation, it still seems to exist.

TEXT TABLE 11

UTAH
FIFTEEN OCCUPATIONS
WHERE WOMEN HAVE INCREASED
THEIR EMPLOYMENT SHARE
1970 AND 1980

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE	WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED		PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE
	1970	1980	1970-1980
INSURANCE ADJUSTERS, EXAMINERS & INVESTIGATORS	26.1	66.3	40.2
HOTEL CLERKS	47.4	82.2	34.8
COMPUTER OPERATORS	36.6	65.2	28.6
SCIENCE TECHNICIANS	8.3	33.2	24.9
PUBLIC RELATIONS SPECIALISTS	20.7	45.0	24.3
BUS DRIVERS	3.7	26.4	22.7
BARTENDERS	32.9	54.2	21.3
BAKERS	23.9	44.7	20.8
WAITERS & WAITRESSES' ASSISTANTS	29.4	49.8	20.4
PRODUCTION COORDINATORS	19.2	39.2	20.0
STOCK HANDLERS & BAGGERS	3.4	23.0	19.6
TRANSPORTATION, TICKET & RESERVATION AGENTS	32.4	51.8	19.4
SUPERVISORS, FOOD PREPARATION & SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	51.2	70.2	19.0
THERAPISTS	45.6	64.1	18.3
INVESTIGATORS & ADJUSTERS, EXCEPT INSURANCE	37.3	55.1	17.8

SELECTION CRITERIA: The actual number of males and females in 1970 and 1980 occupational categories had to equal 100.
SOURCE: 1970 and 1980 Census of the Population.

One study of women with a high commitment to work found that their occupations still differed considerably from what would be expected if they were determined by the same process as men's are.[6] In other words, jobs for these women fell short of the occupations that might have been expected for men of the same age, experience, and education. The researchers involved in this study viewed this as evidence of substantial employer discrimination in job assignment for women workers.

IN CLOSING . . .

Although women are making headway in obtaining jobs that have been considered predominantly a man's "dominion," this progress has been slow. Women to a certain degree are just as locked into occupationally segregated jobs as they were at the turn of the century. The division of the sexes by job classification seems to produce inequities in the marketplace that hurt everyone economically. Most of the reasoning behind the occupational segregation experienced by the sexes focuses on personal preferences, socialization, and discrimination.

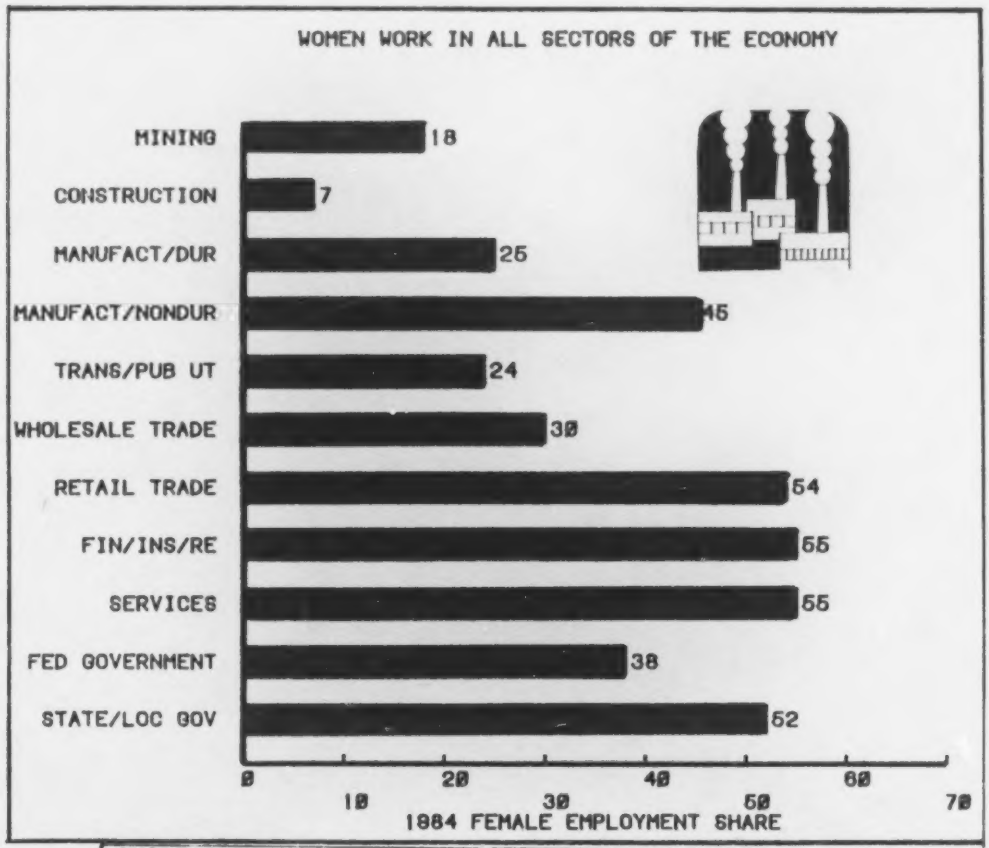


CHART 3.3
UTAH WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED BY INDUSTRY
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGE

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

CHAPTER 4
EARNINGS/INCOME

Utah Women and the 60c Dollar

"The needle and midnight candle are yet considered by too many, the proper appliances of woman's sphere. Custom also says that if a woman does as much work as a man, and does it well, she must not receive equal pay for it, and herein a wrong is inflicted upon her by the deprivation of a right to which she is justly entitled."

Eliza R. Snow
"Woman's Rights and Wrongs," 1872

CHAPTER 4

EARNINGS/INCOME

Utah Women and the 60¢ Dollar

According to the Census, in 1979, the median earnings for year-round, full-time female workers in Utah registered at $10,282. In the same year, the median earnings for year-round, full-time male workers registered at $19,558. On the average, then, women earned less than 53 percent of the salaries of their male counterparts. No, that figure was not a "typo"; in 1979, women, on the average, earned just slightly more than half of what men did. Moreover, women in Utah are worse off than their sisters nationwide. The comparable ratio of female to male earnings for the country as a whole fell at 56 percent. Remember, these statistics exclude people who work only part-time or part of the year (mostly women) and still this dramatic discrepancy in pay remains.

Even more remarkable is the fact that there has been so little change in the female/male earnings differential during the past thirty years—a period when women have been making gains in the "high paying" professions. Granted, recent national figures might lead us to believe that incomes are converging. However, data series published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) show that for about the last 25 years the male/female earnings ratio for year-round full-time workers has hovered right around 60 percent. Depending on whose data you use, the detail may change, but basically there has been very little movement in the gap when figures within series are examined. I would have included a graph, but who wants to look at a straight line?

Actually, there has been some upward movement in the past few years—at least nationally. Figures supplied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics put the 1983 male/female pay differential at 64 percent. We don't have any real good post-Census Utah data, but it is safe to assume that earnings for Utah women are advancing in the same basic trend as the rest of the nation (although Utahn's do tend to lag behind). However, part of the gains are due to the falling real wage of men since 1980. Also remember, men experienced higher unemployment than did women during the recent 1982 to 1983 recession. Furthermore, much of this unemployment occurred in typically high paying, male dominated industries. In fact, some economists expect the wage differential to drop back down into the typical 60 percent range now that we are in the recovery and growth phase. They feel that this narrowing of the gap may be just a fleeting result of the drop in economic activity. The 1984 female to male median earnings ratio for full-time wage and salary workers *did drop* in comparison with 1982 and 1983 statistics implying that perhaps recent gains were not as great in real terms as many may have believed. On the other hand, researchers at Rand Corporation suggest that most of the declining wage gap was due to the increased labor force participation of college-educated women as gains have been most dramatic for younger women (baby boomers).[1]

INCOME VERSUS EARNINGS

Now is as good a time a any to talk about the difference between earnings and income. Listed below are some basic bureaucratic, but useful definitions.

INCOME: Includes wage and salary income; nonfarm net self-employment income; farm net self-employment income; interest, dividend, net royalty or rental income; Social Security or Railroad Retirement income; public assistance or welfare income; and all other income. Does not include lump-sum type receipts (such as insurance payments), the value of "in kind" income, employer contributions to pensions, gifts, exchange of money between family members, tax refunds, etc.[2]

EARNINGS: Wage or salary income and net income from farm and nonfarm self-employment.[3]

A good deal of the available data about monies received by individuals and other detailed characteristics deals with income rather than earnings. Although "income statistics" include other sorts of payments in addition to earnings, they paint a more complete picture of "the gap" in terms of certain characteristics such as education, age, etc.

Please recognize, that different sources are going to provide different wage gap figures. In fact, for the U.S., in 1980, you could probably come up with a hundred and one different statistics for this one concept. One is almost apprehensive of using any actual numbers at all. However, most of the

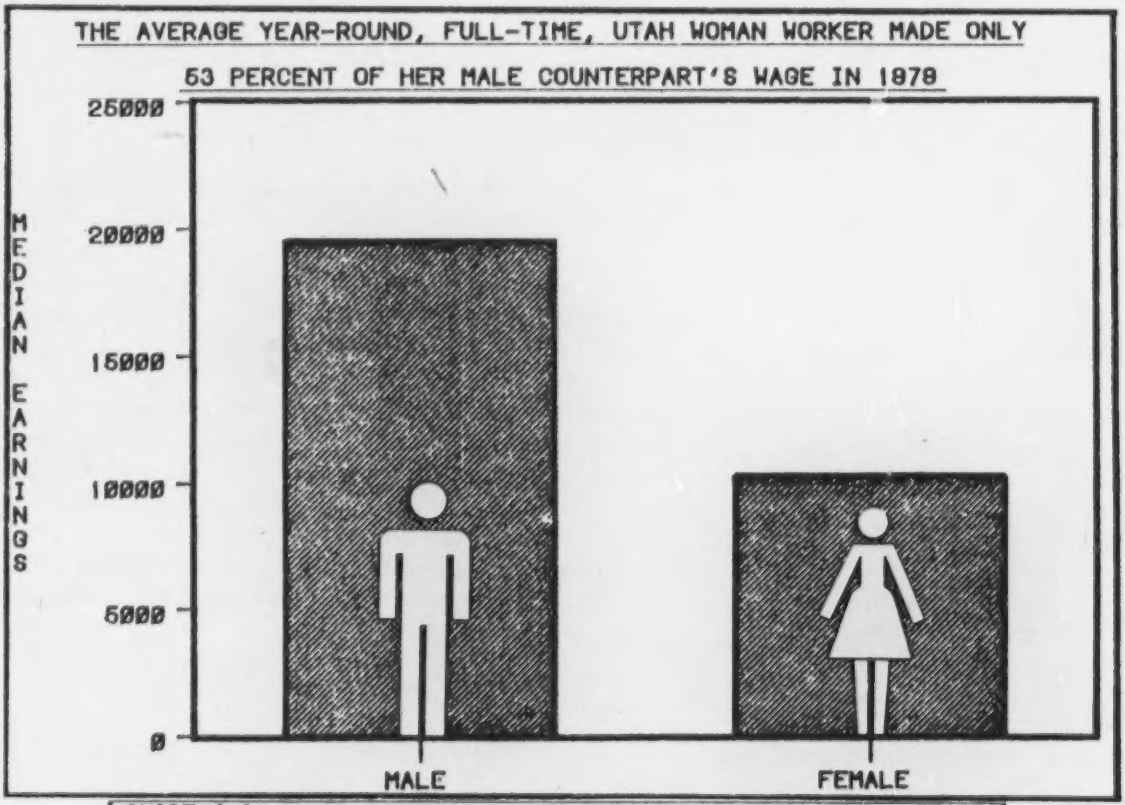


CHART 4.1
UTAH MEDIAN EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS BY SEX
1979

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

discrepancies occur due to the fact that specific groups of people with specific characteristics (age, worker, labor force status, etc.) are included or excluded from the particular calculations you are examining. Moreover, many times, because of the manner in which data was collected in prior periods, data between years may not be strictly comparable even for the same group of people. No matter what type of data is involved, you seem to run up against the same problems (I won't bore you with Disraeli's quote about damned lies and statistics). However, rather than worrying about which statistics are which, and which statistics are "right," and which statistics are the most relevant, and which statistics are comparable, the overall trend and direction of the data appears to be the most important matter of concern.

I'm going to use all sorts of different data to illustrate the income/earnings differences between men and women. The earnings gap is probably the most significant issue related to female employment and the more statistical relationships we examine, the more likely we are to understand it. (I'll try not to cloud the issue with too many numbers.)

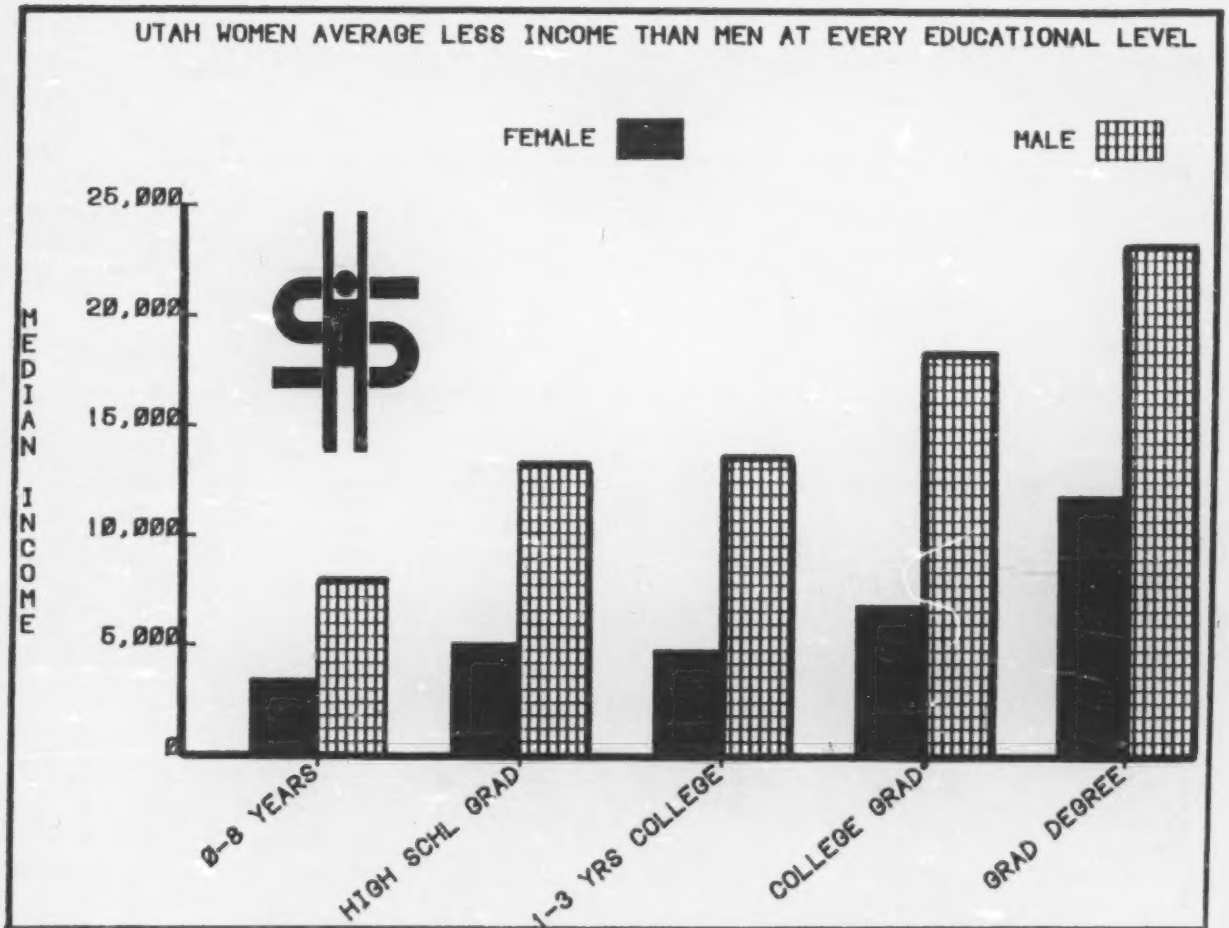


CHART 4.2
UTAH MEDIAN INCOME BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND SEX
1979

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION—Bringing Home the Bacon

The 1980 Census provides information on Utah earnings by occupation for both sexes (look in the appendix for a detailed breakdown). It soon becomes apparent that female dominated occupations tend to be low paying. The two lists below have been compiled from Census data. One list provides the top ten paying occupations for Utah men; the other, the top ten paying occupations for Utah women (employment must have equaled at least 100 for a particular occupation to make the list for either sex). Close examination of these two tables (which are provided for the *experienced* civilian labor force by the way), reveals that the best paying jobs for men are very often the best paying jobs for women. As one might expect, doctors, lawyers, managers, and college instructors make the list for both sexes. However, the median earnings of women in these occupations fall far below the median earnings of men in the same professions. Only female nurses, auto mechanics, and computer scientists made more than 80 percent of their male counterparts salaries (notice that none of these professions made the men's "top ten" list). In the occupations which paid best for men, the female/male earnings ratio averaged right around 60 percent.

TEXT TABLE 12

UTAH
TOP TEN PAYING MALE OCCUPATIONS
FOR FULL-TIME, YEAR-ROUND WORKERS
1979

OCCUPATION	MALE MEDIAN EARNINGS	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL
PHYSICIANS	$ 45,748	40.6	7.9
DENTISTS	36,481	19.2	1.0
HEALTH DIAGNOSING EXCEPT PHYSICIANS & DENTISTS	30,050	42.3	5.6
LAWYERS & JUDGES	27,299	57.0	7.2
RAIL & WATER TRANSPORTATION OCCUPATIONS	25,573	56.3	0.7
MANAGERS MEDICINE & HEALTH	25,470	54.0	38.1
ADMINISTRATORS, EDUCATION	25,124	46.0	16.2
POST SECONDARY TEACHERS	25,061	62.5	12.8
MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS, MANUFACTURING	24,413	52.7	8.8
MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS, TRANS., COMM. & PUB. UTILITIES	24,070	59.4	10.1

NOTE: MALE EMPLOYMENT IN EACH OCCUPATION MUST HAVE EQUALED AT LEAST 100.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TEXT TABLE 13

UTAH
TOP TEN PAYING FEMALE OCCUPATIONS
FOR FULL-TIME, YEAR-ROUND WORKERS
1979

OCCUPATION	FEMALE MEDIAN EARNINGS	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL
COMPUTER SCIENTISTS & ANALYSTS	$ 19,426	86.9	12.3
PHYSICIANS	18,554	40.6	7.9
LAWYERS & JUDGES	15,845	57.0	7.2
POST SECONDARY TEACHERS	15,667	62.5	12.8
ENGINEERS	15,108	65.6	2.7
AUTO MECHANICS	14,629	96.9	1.8
REGISTERED NURSES	14,315	87.7	94.0
MANAGERS, TRANS., COMM., UTIL.	14,291	59.4	10.1
MANAGERS, MEDICINE & HEALTH	13,761	54.0	38.1
NATURAL SCIENTISTS	13,481	64.5	9.9

NOTE: FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN EACH OCCUPATION MUST HAVE EQUALED AT LEAST 100.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

In what occupations do women most closely approach their male co-workers salaries? Female auto mechanics do very well—they make (on the average) almost 97 percent of the male mechanic's wage (again employment had to equal 100 for occupational inclusion on this list). While they may do well financially, less that 2 percent of all Utah auto mechanics are female. Women laborers also make about the same as men laborers. Again, this is not an occupation anyone would call "woman's work." Nursing aides, registered nurses, secretaries, and waitresses (all heavily female dominated) *did* make the top ten earnings ratio roster; but median salaries in these occupations are disposed to fall on the low end of the pay scale. Waitresses only make 78 percent of a waiter's salary, yet this occupation still made the list. To be fair, please note that female bank tellers made more, as a general rule, than did male bank tellers. However, since employment of male tellers did not equal at least one hundred, they didn't make the list.

In a recent nationwide survey of detailed earnings by occupation and sex, Nancy Rytina reports that the most highly paid occupations for women are about the same as those for men, but that women's pay does not approach the earnings of men in the same occupations—paralleling Utah data. She also noted that high paying U.S. occupations for women do not typically attract the largest numbers of female workers.[4]

To put it simply, the average woman hardly ever makes as much as her male co-worker, regardless of occupation. Even in predominantly female professions, women's wages fall below men's to a significant degree.

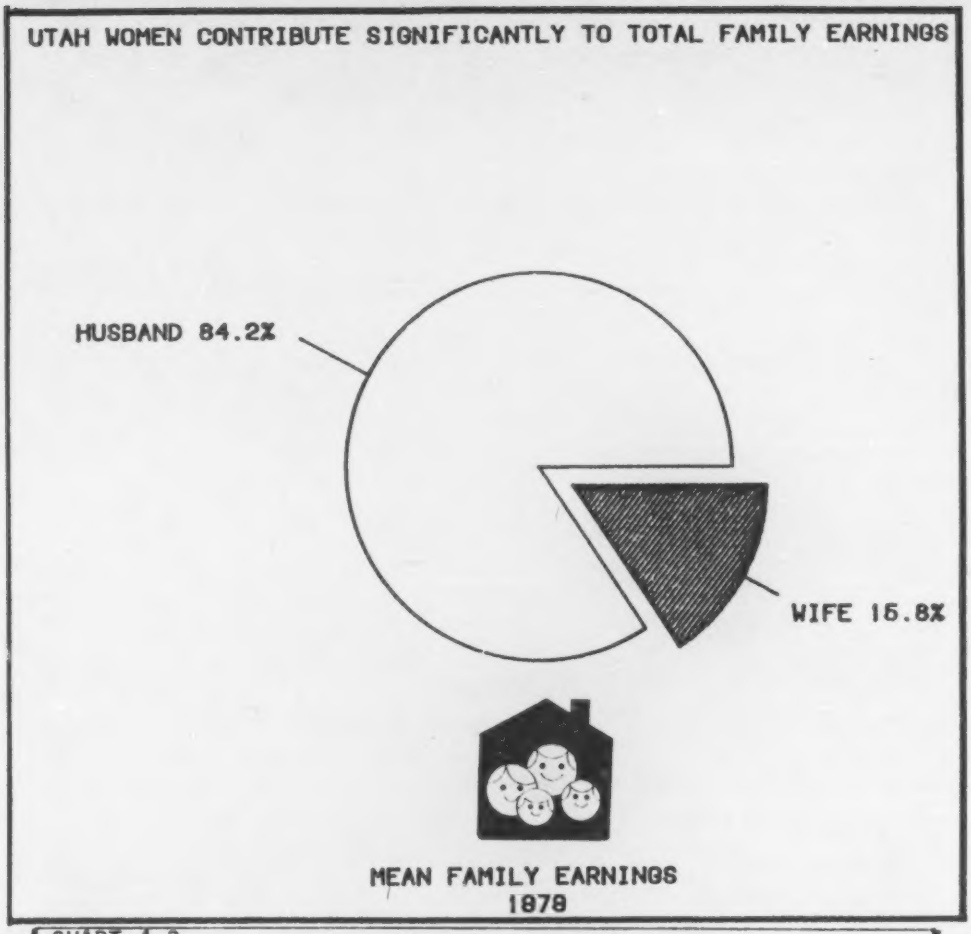


CHART 4.3
UTAH PERCENT SHARE OF SPOUSE CONTRIBUTION TO FAMILY EARNINGS
1979

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

INCOME AND EDUCATION—Earning and Learning

Everyone always told you in school, that a good education was necessary for a good paying job (except, of course, for those difficult people who told stories about PHD's washing dishes). Well, in general, the old axiom holds true. Income (now is the time to switch from earnings) exhibits a clear, positive, relationship to education—for both sexes. In other words, generally, the higher the education, the higher the pay. However, in 1979, the median income for Utah women with four years of college was less than the median income for Utah men with a seventh grade education. While the inclusion of certain income items tends to skew certain relationships, given the overall pay gap, the results would probably not appear extremely different if only earnings were examined and at least would be expected follow the same direction.

As might be anticipated, unless a woman has very little education, her income normally rises with increased schooling. Women with seven or more years of college display the least disparity in earnings when compared to men. In fact, increased education seems to improve the likelihood that a woman's income will more closely approximate her male counterpart's income. It is also true that women with higher educations are more likely to be labor force participants. However, *even on the doctorate level*, women's median income registered only 51 percent of the comparable male's.

INCOME AND AGE

Based entirely upon casual observation, most people would advance the theory that income increases with age (at least until retirement). The statistics support this theory—and for both sexes. However, the income gap is no respecter of age. Evidence from the 1980 census, suggests that "the gap" is alive and well regardless of what age group is studied. Younger women's income most closely

TEXT TABLE 14

UTAH
TEN OCCUPATIONS WITH HIGHEST FEMALE/MALE PAY RATIO
YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS
1979

OCCUPATION	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE MEDIAN WAGE	PERCENT OF FEMALE WORKERS
AUTO MECHANICS	96.9	$14,629	1.8
PAINTERS, CONSTRUCTION & MAINTENANCE	95.1	15,056	3.3
LABORERS, DURABLE MANUFACTURING	94.9	15,257	11.5
NURSING AIDES, ORDERLIES & ATTENDANT	88.8	7,316	83.5
REGISTERED NURSES	87.7	14,315	94.0
COMPUTER SCIENTISTS & ANALYSTS	86.9	19,426	12.3
SECRETARIES	78.9	9,535	98.9
DRAFTING & SURVEYING TECHNICIANS	78.6	12,286	11.0
COOKS	78.3	6,938	49.5
WAITERS & FOOD COUNTER WORKERS	77.8	5,754	86.3

NOTE: FEMALE EMPLOYMENT MUST EQUAL 100 OR MORE FOR OCCUPATION TO BE INCLUDED.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

approximates their male peer's income. Of course, females in the lower age groups are more likely to be single, to be in the work force, and to show an employment history similar to males of the same age. Today's younger women tend to be better educated, tend to wait longer to get married, and tend to stay in the work force even after matrimony and childbirth.

WOMEN, EARNINGS, AND THEIR FAMILIES

The renumeration a woman receives for her participation in the labor force contributes significantly to her family's economic well-being. In 1979, women contributed nearly 16 percent of the earnings of all Utah's married-couple families. (U.S. women were responsible for 19 percent of their family's total earnings.) When both husband and wife showed year-round, full-time work commitments, the woman's contribution amounted to third of her family's earnings. These families also showed the highest median earnings of any labor force status grouping of couples. Women who worked part-time while their husband's worked full-time (a fifth of all married-couple families) contributed 13 percent of the total family earnings pie. One interesting fact arises from the data. In married-couple families where the wife worked full-time all year-round, and her husband worked part-time, the wife's earnings made up little more than half of the family's total. Obviously, there is no sudden disappearance of "the gap" between most husbands and wives.

Isabel Sawhill points out that there is a greater prevalence of marriage—and a lower probability of divorce—when women's wages or their likelihood of working are relatively low. Moreover, marital stability is greater the greater the difference between husbands' and wives' earnings, a relationship that implies fewer long-term marriages if the gap between women's and men's earnings narrows.[5]

Schooling has a positive affect on income, but how does the educational mix between a husband and wife influence the portion of the family's income that the woman provides? In general, the more education the man has, the smaller the fraction of the family's income is contributed by the woman, *regardless* of *her* educational background. Utah women with college degrees married to men with college degrees furnish only 15 percent of their combined earnings. Even women with four years of college married to men with less than four years of high school (logically, not many couples that fall in this category) supply less than a quarter of the family livelihood. Note that, nationwide, women provide a higher portion of family earnings across all educational categories than do their Utah counterparts.

Now is the time to switch gears again as we talk about income. The income of women falls short of the income of men in every tabulated marital category and Utah women fare worse that women in the U.S. as a whole. For example, the median income for Utah's women householders registers about 45 percent of the same figure for men householders (this fact has important implications about poverty that will be discussed later). Incomes seem to be most comparable for nonspouse relatives in families—a female/male income ratio of about three-fourths.

WHY THE GAP?

The data implying the existence of the female earnings/income gap seems irrefutable; but the reasons for it appear less clear. Let's take the time to scrutinize some of the explanations that have been advanced to account for this decided discrepancy. Probably more has been written on this particular

female employment issue than on any other. Before you read the rationalizations listed below, understand that they may not necessarily be corroborated by research results. However, I have included them in order to present a complete picture of the issues.

Women have "career preferences" for lower-paying "female" occupations. A corollary to this explanation suggests that women avoid choosing, for personal reasons, occupations that require a substantial investment in education, on-the-job-training or commitment to the job. In addition to providing marginal salaries in and of themselves, typically "female" occupations also seem to be concentrated in industries with low average hourly earnings (see the "Occupations" chapter). In other words, perhaps the "self-segregation" of women into low paying professions and occupations accounts for part of the pay differential.

One study concludes that up to 30 percent of the wage gap results from the distribution of men and women into different occupations.[6] One study shows that among married white college graduates, segregation of jobs accounted for almost 70 percent of the earnings gap.[7] A *Newsweek* survey seemed to conclude that the less traditional a woman's occupation, the more likely she was to earn a high income.[8] However, other research has shown that even in occupations that are traditionally female, men's earnings have been consistently higher than women's earnings since 1960.[9]

The use of Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) establishment wage survey data also suggests a narrower wage gap than the aggregate earnings data imply. A recent BLS study concluded that the average pay for men in narrowly defined white-collar occupational skill levels generally exceed the earnings of their female counterparts, but that the difference was much smaller than that found in studies using less detailed data.[10] Some economists point out that the surge of women into nontraditional jobs only began in the early 1970's and that in some firms women have not been working long enough to be in line for top executive positions.[11]

However, researchers Duncan and Corcoran argue that there is, in fact, only weak evidence that women who work in "typically female" occupations—secretarial, teaching, nursing, and the various service jobs—earn lower wages than equally qualified women in other occupations. "In other words," Corcoran and Duncan explain, "lower average wages in occupations where women are concentrated may simply reflect the generally lower wages paid to women in any occupation." Their research into women's actual work histories does not support the claim that many women's lower earnings result primarily from being locked into low-paying "job ghettos."[12]

Many women want to move in and out of the work force, choosing to remain at home, if they can, while their children are young. This work pattern may hold true for some women, but research indicates that, increasingly, most women can be differentiated by two different categories—those always in the labor force and those always out.[13]

Even if women do have interruptions in employment, why does this necessarily lead to lower earnings? Mincer and Polachek theorized two reasons why discontinuous work history patterns might lead to lower earnings. Number one, interruptions in market work lead to lower levels of accumulated human capital. In other words, a person who is out of the labor market is not gaining the new work skills and experience that someone with a continuous work history is. Number two, interruptions actually cause a depreciation in existing human capital so that time away from the workplace also has costs in terms of foregone experience.[14] Other studies have found very little evidence of this "depreciation effect."[15] However, the debate over this issue still rages on between social scientists with conflicting research from both sides.

Recent research conducted by the U.S. Department of Commerce concludes that work interruptions explain only a small proportion of the earnings differential between women and men. True, women on the average tend to experience more work interruptions than men; and these interruptions are more likely to be of a familial nature. However, this study reports that, in general, work interruptions turned out to be less important than either general experience or education as determinants of earnings for *both* women and men.[16] Other research which compared wives with women who had never married found that the continuous work experience of the never-marrieds did not result in substantially higher wages; the two groups experienced the same modest growth of earnings with age.[17]

Women tend to have spent less time in a particular job than men. Economists like to give this concept a fancy name—occupational tenure, but most people just call it "experience." This explanation of "the gap" is tied quite closely to work interruptions, inasmuch as a person with significantly more and longer breaks in employment will tend to accumulate less experience in their present occupation.

A recent study reports that only about 4 percent of the wage gap can be accounted for by sex differences in the distribution of occupational tenure. This same study found that *potential* experience maintains an effect on earnings apart from the larger effects of occupational tenure. However, for women, the actual tenure in the occupation emerges as a stronger predictor of earnings than it does for men.[18]

Duncan and Corcoran found that women (particularly white women) tended to accumulate less full-time work experience than men, but that these differences accounted for barely 30 percent of the wage differential between white men and women.[19]

Women do not obtain as good an education as men thus limiting their employment. Duncan and Corcoran found that average educational attainments of white men and white women were so similar that the difference could account for only 2 percent of the wage gap.[20] However, women continue to remain disproportionately illiterate in mathematics, science, and engineering (usually because of socialization and not ability). This illiteracy closes the doors to many high paying positions. On a college level, women still show a tendency to choose majors that will lead to stereo-typical jobs such as the humanities, home economics, etc.

Women are paid less than men with the same characteristics on the same job because on the average they produce less. Since job production is so difficult to measure and compare across occupations, most tests in this area must be based on presumed differences between men and women in commitment to the job and in ability. However, research indicates—to the extent that productivity is measurable—that equally productive men and women make unequal wages.[21]

Although most women are delaying marriage/childbirth and obtaining a better education, significant numbers of young girls become pregnant too soon, marry too young, or divorce with inadequate support for their children. These women with few job skills, little education, and no male support often end up on the welfare rolls or in jobs that pay minimum wage. This drags the average (or median as the case may be) wage for all women down.

Women are paid less because they are discriminated against. A survey of Salt Lake women found that the majority do not feel that the are paid the same wages as a man doing equal work.[22] Feelings are one thing, actual research is another. A fairly consistent finding from the studies presented above is that the estimated female wage gap is reduced as more economic and demographic factors are introduced into the analysis. However, no one has come up with research (at least to my knowledge) that claims to

have eliminated the pay gap entirely. Mincer and Polachek accounted for 70 percent of the gap between married men and women.[23] A review of research relative to the wage gap by the National Academy of Sciences panel shows that in the studies reviewed, worker characteristics accounted for *at most* 44 percent of the differential.[24] Duncan and Corcoran report that "less than half of the earnings gap can be explained by the kinds of differences in job commitment or work qualifications that could affect the earnings potential of any worker, male or female. Most of the gap remains unexplainable and may indeed reflect some institutionalized discrimination against women in the working world."[25] Although this research suggests discrimination, the proposition itself is a difficult one to prove. However, the fact remains, that after all measurable variables are included in earnings equations for women and men, there still remains a variance which is not removed.

Although women are moving into the professions, part of the problem lies in the fact that women don't seem to be promoted as quickly as men. Even as continuously employed women get older, their earnings do not rise as rapidly as men's do. One study came to the conclusion that the major cause of the female earnings deficit could be attributed to the failure of women to rise as fast as men with the same amount of education in the same occupation.[26]

The *Salt Lake Tribune* recently reported on an essay prepared by two Smith College economists—Susan Boslego Carter and Michael Carter. They entitled their work, "Women's Recent Progress in the Professions or, Women Get a Ticket to Ride After the Gravy Train Has Left the Station." The Carters point out that, while in the past a person's first job was a pretty good forecaster of the quality of their future career, this has not proved to be the case for many women. A growing number of economists, including the Carters, feel that a "two-track" job system is emerging. The first track offers good paying jobs, with high prestige and an opportunity for advancement. On the other hand, the second track (jobs in the same occupation) is creating a new class of routine, low-paying jobs, unconnected to promotion ladders. Women seem to be ending up in the second track of these professional jobs. For example, about three-fourths of male doctors are "office-based" compared to just over half of female doctors. Physicians in private practice would generally have the highest potential for high incomes. A similar pattern is occurring in business. Many feel that while women are making inroads educationally and into middle management, their advancement into top management is being stymied.[27]

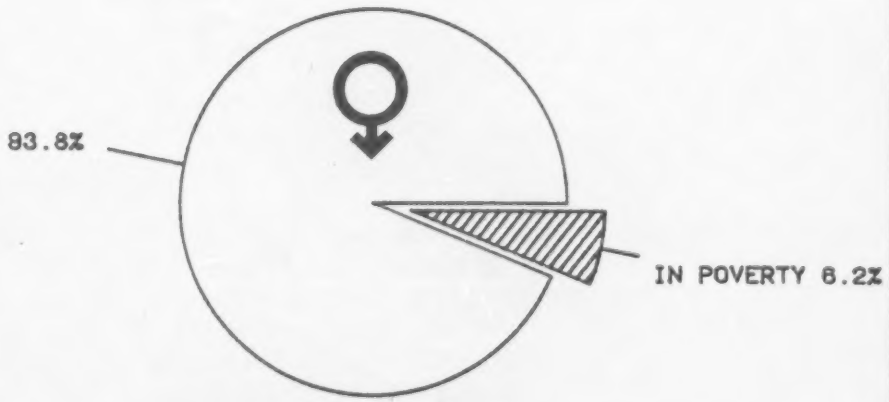
Myra Strober, director of Stanford's Center for Research on Women, explains that one basic problem is that male executives tend to choose successors who are like themselves.[28] Women who do succeed, such as Mary Cunningham, are often faced with a subtle form of sexual harassment that attempts to undermine their credibility by assuming that the only way a woman gets ahead quickly is through sexual favors.

One result of the Duncan and Corcoran study suggests that although men were a little more likely to have gotten their jobs through, shall we say, the "old boy network," data on actual earnings turned up little evidence that this road leads to substantially higher pay for either sex. However, they did find that men were more likely to obtain positions with longer training periods (which may eventually lead to higher pay). The researchers also discovered that the earnings of those who merely supervise their co-workers don't differ all that much from nonsupervisory personnel. However, jobs with authority to hire, fire, and promote, were associated with a 20 percent higher pay rate. Only about one in ten working women compared to one in four working men had authority over the pay and promotion of others. Duncan and Corcoran point out, "In fact many theorists see such hierarchical authority structures as the means of preserving an existing social or economic structure, often implying the existence of some form of discrimination or inequity."[29]

ALMOST ONE-THIRD OF THE PERSONS IN UTAH FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS LIVE BELOW THE POVERTY LINE

FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS
1979

COMPARED TO ONLY 6 PERCENT OF THE PERSONS IN MALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS



MALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS
1979

CHART 4.4
UTAH PERCENTAGE OF INDIVIDUALS BELOW POVERTY BY SEX OF HOUSEHOLDER
1979

SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

COMPARABLE WORTH

Now that you are familiar with about 50,000 studies on the wage gap, let's talk about the concept of comparable worth. Traditional "female" jobs generally pay less than do traditional "male" jobs—a fact that has become abundantly clear in this report. There are those who charge that American women are being systematically and illegally underpaid for work that is different but equal in difficulty to that done by men. "Comparable worth" is a controversial technique where jobs are given a numerical rating which is then used to set salaries. Jobs are compared *across* occupational categories rather than *within* them. For example, a comparable worth system might rank as equal a carpenter's job and a secretary's job—two professions with substantially different average salaries.

Dan Evans (then governor of Washington State—now U.S. Senator) commissioned one of the first studies on this issue. A private firm rated as "comparable" many kinds of work in which men consistently got higher wages and many kinds of lower-paying work done by women. The firm attributed a large portion of the differences "to traditional job relationships rather than to relative job worth." U.S. District Judge Jack Tanner ruled that Washington State had "historically engaged in employment discrimination on the basis of sex."[30] Tanner ordered salary increases and four year's back pay pay for more than 15,000 workers—90 percent of whom were women. Well, the battle still continues on in the courts. A substantial number of "comparable worth" cases are currently being pressed in the judicial system; and in June of 1981, the Supreme Court held that women *could* use this controversial theory to bring sex-bias suits under federal civil rights law even if the disputes didn't involve equal jobs.

So far, most of the comparable worth battles have been concentrated in the public sector; and no one is sure at this point who is going to "win" or what effect the outcome will have on the private sector. Opponents of comparable worth contend that the economy has set a lower value on "female-type" jobs and that messing around with the "free market" is just going to cause inequities and inefficiencies in the system. Other skeptics believe that raising the salaries of "women's jobs" will just result in increased occupational segregation. Some even suspect that enforcing the pay-equity issues would eventually mean a centrally planned U.S. economy, where the bureaucracy would make arbitrary decisions about the value of everybody's job. However, regardless of the opposition, comparable worth appears bound to become one of the hottest compensation issues of the decade.

WIVES WHO EARN MORE THAN THEIR HUSBANDS—Movers and Shakers

A short time ago a slight flurry was created in the press when the Census Bureau released a national study on women who earn more than their spouses. Headlines in newspapers and magazines read like this, "Six Million Women Earn More than Husbands." Obviously, these women are atypical given the preceding (lengthy) discussion about women on the average earning less than men (particularly in married couple families). As a matter of fact, in the majority of dual-earner couples, the wife brought home less than half of what her husband did in 1981—the year in which this study was conducted. During the same period, the wife was the primary earner in only about 12 percent of U.S. couples. However, in a third of these couples, the men had no earnings at all (many were retired). Moreover, a large number of these wives earned more than their husbands only on a short-time basis. Their spouses may have been temporarily unemployed, in school, or ill leading one to believe that the number of women who make up the "hard-core" of primary earners is probably much less than these figures indicate.[31]

But why do some women consistently out-earn their husbands? Two views are generally purported to explain this phenomenon (both stereotypical). One is the "super star" wife theory—stressing the wife's occupational attainments. The other is the "underachieving" husband theory—stressing how the man's lack of ability (or initiative) account for the wife's fatter paycheck. One fact the study brought out was that over half of the husbands who were secondary earners in 1981 worked either part-time or were employed only part of the year. We could ask whether these husbands earned less because of poor economic conditions, or because they felt less pressure because their wives were bringing home a paycheck.

THE NOUVEAU POOR

Nearly one-third of Utah's female-headed families lived below the poverty line in 1979. Over 40 percent of the children under 18 belonging to female householders lived in poverty in 1979. These figures shock, startle, and distress most of the State's inhabitants, if not on humanitarian grounds, because of the increased social services (welfare) outlays. Compare these figures to those for male-headed families—only 6 percent of families headed by men had incomes which fell below the poverty level. Not only are female-headed households at greater risk of joining the ranks of the poor, but women in general are more likely to have poverty level incomes than are men. Census figures show that 11.6 percent of Utah females received incomes below the poverty standard while only 9.0 percent of males fell in this category. In all age groups (with the exception of persons under the age of 16) women outnumber men in poverty. The problem is particularly bad for women 16 to 21 years. Almost one-fifth of women in this age group make up a part of the poverty population reflecting increasing numbers of young unwed mothers. Although poverty is not quite as pronounced in Utah as it is in the rest of the U.S., state poverty trends basically reflect those nationwide. However, poverty for women in Utah does tend to be concentrated at younger age levels, which no doubt partially reflects Utah's younger population in general.

The National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity has predicted: "All other things being equal, if the proportion of the poor in female-householder families were to continue to increase at the same rate as it did from 1967 to 1978, the poverty population would be composed solely of women and their children before the year 2000."[32] While this kind of prediction, which seems totally ignorant of trend and growth patterns, tends to be inflammatory rather than accurate, it points out the increasing problem of the "feminization of poverty." Whether through divorce, desertion, or death, an estimated 85 percent of American women can expect to have to support themselves (if not themselves and their children) at some time in their lives. Many of these women will find themselves within the ranks of the poor.

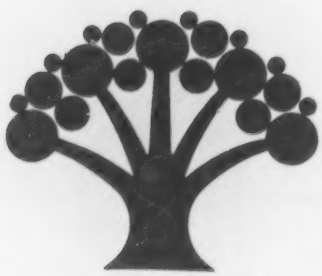
Isabel Sawhill calculated that in 1970, 31 percent of all occupations paid poverty-level wages to a white female high school graduate who worked all year; and 54 percent of all occupations filled predominantly by females paid wages this low.[33] Andrew Cherlin of Johns Hopkins University has said, "A large number of studies have made it unclear that the absence of the father was directly responsible for any of the supposed deficiencies of broken homes." The problem, he thinks, is not the lack of a male presence, but the lack of a male income.[34] Estimates are that only three-fifths of women with dependent children are awarded or have an agreement to receive child support. Of those three-fifths, only one-half received the full amount to which they were entitled during 1978 and 28 percent received no payment at all.[35] Moreover, as inflation has grown, the amounts awarded have often dwindled in real terms.

TEXT TABLE 15

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
1979 WIFE'S EARNINGS AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL FAMILY EARNINGS
FOR MARRIED COUPLE FAMILIES, BY YEARS OF EDUCATION

	WIFE'S EDUCATION		
HUSBAND'S EDUCATION	4 OR MORE YEARS COLLEGE	4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL
UTAH			
4 OR MORE YEARS COLLEGE	15.3	13.9	9.8
4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	22.0	16.2	14.1
LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL	23.0	19.4	16.7
UNITED STATES			
4 OR MORE YEARS COLLEGE	19.9	15.5	13.9
4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	26.6	18.6	14.5
LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL	29.8	21.1	16.6

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.



Young unmarried mothers make up a large portion of the poor. Although fertility among teenagers is actually dropping (like the fertility rate in general), pregnant teenagers are less likely to get married or give their babies up for adoption than before. Mothers who married young or not at all are usually ill-equipped to find jobs which pay enough to support themselves and their children, particularly in a society that generally pays women less than men.

A recent (March 1983) study found that almost one-fourth of U.S. working women who maintained families had not completed high school compared to 15 percent of working wives. Women with children under the age of six are limited by the high cost of child care and the additional problems associated with raising children with only one parent. The same survey found that the unemployment rate for mothers with pre-schoolers was 23 percent compared with 15 percent for mothers whose youngest child was at least school age.[36] However, women maintaining families do show a very strong commitment to the labor force. Seventy-five percent of mothers maintaining families whose youngest child was school age participated in the work force.

Other women who face income problems are "displaced homemakers" divorced, deserted, or widowed women whose children are over 18, thus making them ineligible for Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Many times, these women have been out of the labor force and out of school for many years and have few visible, marketable job skills. Women aged 65 and older also make up a large share of impoverished females.

IN CONCLUSION

Women have averaged in the last three decades only 60 percent of their male counterpart's earnings. Data suggests that this pay gap may be even wider for Utah women. Although the gap has narrowed slightly in recent years, some economists believe this constriction was an anomaly. Regardless of education, experience, or occupation women earn less than men. Even so, they contribute substantially to their family's income. Many reasons have been advanced to account for the wage differential including differences in work history, educational content, occupation, marital patterns, and productivity. However, no reliable research has been able to account for more than 70 percent of the gap based on these characteristics. This fact points to the existence of some sort of institutionalized discrimination against woman but does not prove it. The female/male wage differential, the fact that many women lack the skills to obtain a good job, and the increased numbers of women who are heads of families without male support, has led to increased poverty among women and their children.

CHAPTER 5
MISCELLANEOUS

Working it Out

"That great events are about to transpire in which woman will perform an active and important revolutionary part we are not afraid to predict. The great question is, is she preparing herself for the position she is destined to occupy and the work which will consequently devolve upon her?"

Emmeline B. Wells
Editor of *The Woman's Exponent*, 1880

CHAPTER 5

MISCELLANEOUS

Working it out

What problems have women faced as they have moved into the labor force at increasing rates? This section deals with a few female employment related issues not specifically covered before—things like health, child care, and family relations. We'll also examine what the future for women in the work force might be.

CHILD CARE—What's a Mother to Do?

Working mothers usually require some sort of child care for their children particularly those under school-age. In fact, the cost and quality of child care is a major concern to most working parents. In a recent survey conducted by Utah Issues, 68 percent of the unemployed respondents answered that they would work if adequate, low cost child care were available. The income of three-fourths of this group fell below $10,000. While this survey was not entirely representative of the State, it does provide an idea of what child care needs exist and what resources Utah parents use to meet those needs. This particular study found that of the respondents currently utilizing child care, over half used child care centers, just under a fourth had their children taken care of by a relative, and about an equal number used family day care homes ("babysitters," licensed or unlicensed). Over 70 percent of these individuals reported contentment with their current child care arrangements. Most negative comments centered on factors that were not related to the actual care of the child (like cost). However, a significant number of parents were displeased with the care their children were receiving.[1]

A nationwide survey on child care arrangements of working mothers conducted in June 1982 produced the following findings:

*At the time of the survey 15 percent of employed mothers used primarily group care services for their youngest child (under 5 years old)—an increase of 2 percent from a similar survey conducted in 1977.

*Black women, women whose youngest child was at least three years old, well-educated women, and women working full-time were more likely to to use group child care services.

*Parents of the child provided care in 23 percent of the cases; 14 percent used the father as principal caretaker, while 9 percent of the mothers cared for the child herself while she was working.

*Twenty-four percent of the fathers who provided principal care were unemployed and 5 percent were not in the labor force at all.

*Care for the youngest pre-school age child was furnished by the child's grandparent, while other relatives provided another 12 percent of the child's supervision when the mother worked. Among unmarried mothers, relatives supplied 40 percent of the child care.

*Approximately 17 percent of all employed mothers used more than one type of care arrangement for the youngest child under five years old. When a father's care in the home was the principal arrangement, 28 percent used multiple care.

*Among mothers of young children not currently in the labor force, the study found that 36 percent of those with family incomes below $15,000 said they would look for work if reasonable cost child care were available compared to 13 percent with incomes of $25,000 or more. The study also revealed that some women have selected part-time work because of the difficulties of arranging for child care.[2]

Statistics from the Utah Department of Social Services indicate that in 1984 there were 140 licensed child day care centers and 1,400 licensed family day care homes. These licensed facilities cared for approximately 15,000 Utah children.[3] Jessie Looslie of the Professional Child Care Association has indicated that child care for infants is almost nonexistent in Utah. Day Care Centers are limited to a maximum of four infants per staff member, while family day care providers may only take care of between two and three infants. Regulations are aimed at ensuring quality care, but they often make infant care economically infeasible for many care givers.[4] For many Utah mothers, child care costs virtually negate the financial gains made through employment outside the home. "Latch-key children"—kids of school-age who come home to empty houses to fend for themselves—also present a special problem. Working mothers must also find some additional provider of child care during the summer when school is out.

TEXT TABLE 16

UTAH
CHILDREN BY AGE
AND PARENT'S EMPLOYMENT STATUS
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1982

AGE	PARENTS WORK	PARENTS DO NOT WORK	PARENTS WOULD WORK IF ADEQUATE CHILDCARE AVAILABLE
0 - 1 YEAR	53	47	31
2 - 5 YEARS	72	28	22
6 - 9 YEARS	65	35	23
10-14 YEARS	69	31	17

NOTE: EMPLOYMENT STATUS PERTAINS ONLY TO PARENT WHO COMPLETED THE SURVEY FORM.
SOURCE: "WHO'S TAKING CARE OF OUR KIDS?", A REPORT ON A CHILDCARE SURVEY CONDUCTED BY UTAH ISSUES INFORMATION PROGRAM, APRIL 1982.

Government has been slow in helping to alleviate the child care problem. Feminist Betty Friedan has commented, "We are one of the few developed nations in the world that do not have serious child care programs."[5] Numerous day care bills have failed to pass the national legislature and only limited help is provided from the child care income tax credit and federal funding to Aid to Families With Dependent Children. Some communities are working together to help solve child care difficulties. Denver's Gilpin School provides extended care for school-age children by offering after school instruction in such areas as ballet and computer programming at a reasonable cost.

Employer involvement in child care seems to be one possible solution to the dilemma. Whether through in-house day care centers, child care payment vouchers (with "cafeteria benefit plans"), or just providing child care referral services, employers can help working mothers and fathers conquer the problem of adequate child care. Not only do employers attract and keep a higher echelon of employee when they provide child care assistance, but they benefit from less job turnover, lower absenteeism, improved employee attitudes, and better community relations. Employers also can provide "flextime," allowing parents to work different schedules in order to share in child care.

What effect has nonparental child care had on the offspring of employed mothers? Kristin Moore and Sandra Hofferth have reported: "The overwhelming consensus of different studies is that most children of working mothers seem to develop normally and well." However, children in day care do seem to get more colds and flu and become more aggressive and peer-oriented than other children. Moore and Hofferth report that this may be due to "too large a group or too low a ratio of adults to children." They also point out several important factors that impact the effect of a mother's employment outside the home: 1) the quality of the substitute care, 2) whether or not the working mother would really prefer to be at home, 3) whether she works full-time or part-time, and 4) the amount of approval her working receives from her family and the community.[6]

Studies have shown that employed mothers do spend only about half as much time as full-time housewives in the company of their children. However, researchers have found that the quality of the time is more important to the child's development than sheer quantity. They also discovered, contrary to the fears of many, that babies form normal attachments to their working mothers.[7] Children of working mothers do more housework than those of full-time homemakers, and daughters tend to have less traditional views of marriage and sex-roles.

HEALTH—Working Each Day Keeps the Doctor Away

Purveyors of gloom and doom predicted that as women move into the workplace they would exhibit health patterns similar to those of men—wonderful things like shorter life spans, heart attacks, mid-life breakdowns, etc. After all, it seems logical that work-related pressure might cause women's health to deteriorate. Almost everyone knows that women now live longer than men, but has work outside the home made women prone to more stress related diseases and death? The evidence indicates that the answer is a resounding, "No!"

For example, women still sustain about half the risk of developing the nation's leading killer, heart disease, as do men. Moreover, sociologists at the Wellesley College Center for Research on Women found that the incidence of depression in women age 35 to 55 has declined dramatically in the past 10 years.[8]

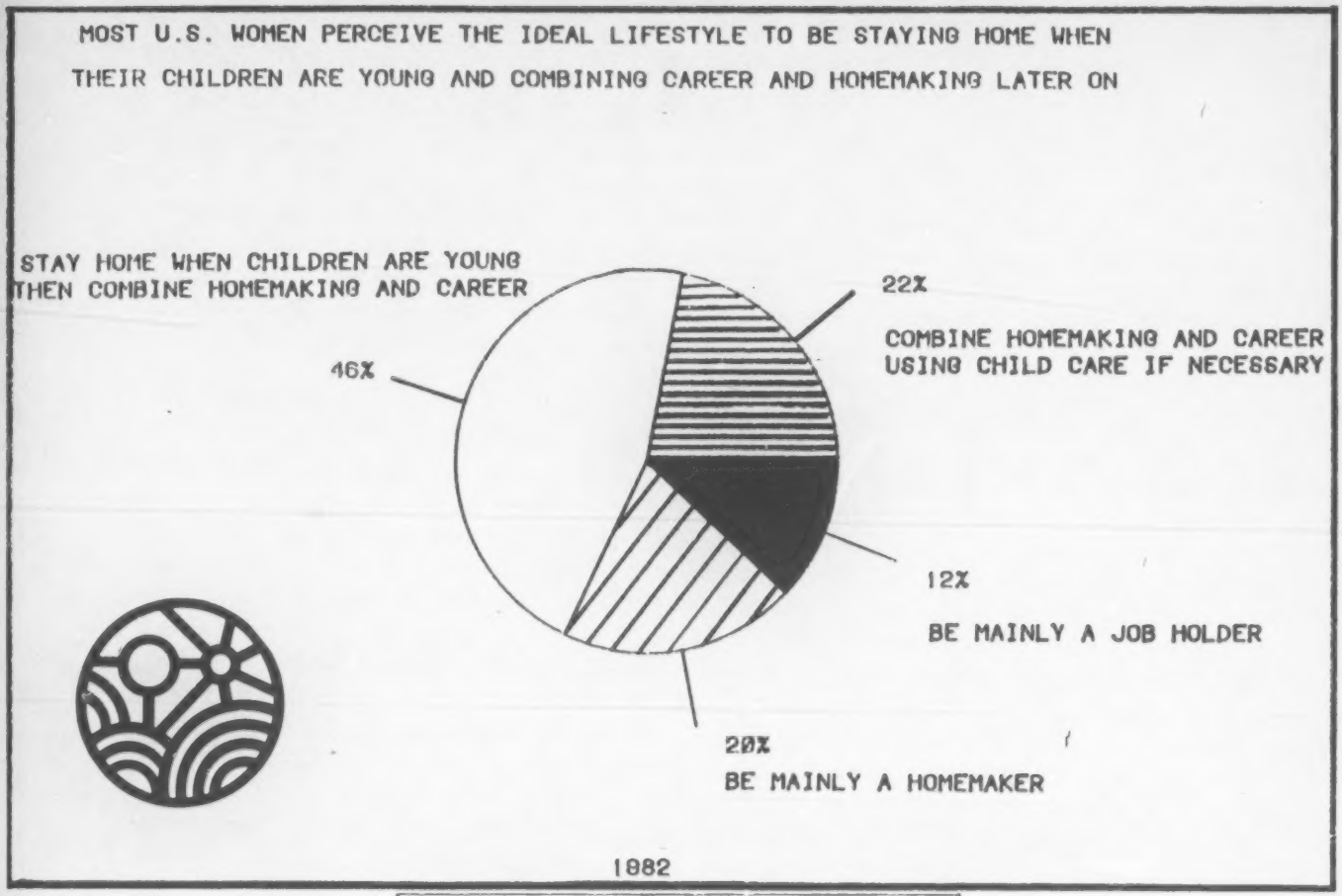

MOST U.S. WOMEN PERCEIVE THE IDEAL LIFESTYLE TO BE STAYING HOME WHEN
THEIR CHILDREN ARE YOUNG AND COMBINING CAREER AND HOMEMAKING LATER ON
STAY HOME WHEN CHILDREN ARE YOUNG
THEN COMBINE HOMEMAKING AND CAREER
46%
22%
COMBINE HOMEMAKING AND CAREER
USING CHILD CARE IF NECESSARY
12%
BE MAINLY A JOB HOLDER
20%
BE MAINLY A HOMEMAKER
1982

CHART 5.1
U.S. FEMALE PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE
1982

SOURCE: MARKET OPINION RESEARCH

Data collected from the National Health Interview Survey, suggests that of the three factors examined (employment, marital status and parenthood), employment has by far the most consistent tie to a woman's good health. Marriage came in second, with parenthood a weak third. Researchers found that in nearly every respect working women have better health than women who are out of the labor force. Part of the difference may be due to the fact that unhealthy women just plain stay out of the job market. However, employed, married women with or without children experience the best overall health. Also, combining a job with marriage appears to be more health-promoting now than it was in the 1960s according to study findings.[9]

Apparently "involvement in activities that use a woman's skills and education, that offer social contacts and intimacy, and that provide income, probably helps people maintain good health or even improve their health." Superwomen, who combine the triple roles, of wife, mother, and employee, (not an easy job) win the advantage of good health. The same is true for men, juggling multiple roles is also linked to their good health.[10] However, as noted anthropologist, Ashley Montague, would tell you, the evidence strongly indicates that woman have an intrinsic biological superiority over men that is not likely to disappear.

TEXT TABLE 17

UNITED STATES
PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE
BY AGE
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1975 AND 1982

PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE	YEAR	TOTAL	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
LIFESTYLE 1 Be mainly a job holder or career women	1975	5	9	5	5	4	6	6
	1982	12	16	9	9	12	9	9
LIFESTYLE 2 Be mainly a homemaker	1975	22	9	10	21	28	30	40
	1982	20	6	11	17	25	28	41
LIFESTYLE 3 Combine homemaking with career using child care if necessary	1975	24	31	27	30	22	17	12
	1982	22	25	25	24	22	19	25
LIFESTYLE 4 Stay home with children when young, then combine career and homemaking	1975	49	51	58	44	46	47	42
	1982	46	53	55	50	41	44	25

SOURCE: MARKET OPINION RESEARCH, as Reported in American Demographics, August 1983.

MR. MOM

Shelley Coverman reports, "For each hour per week wives spend in paid work, husbands' domestic time increases by about five minutes per week." In fact, Ms. Coverman's study indicates that men with nontraditional ideas about sex roles spent slightly *less* time on domestic chores than did traditional men![11] A survey conducted for *Newsweek* found that only 14 percent of husbands in two-earner families perform as much as half the housework, and 60 percent do less than one-fourth.[12] (Perhaps one reason working women have fewer children.) Joseph Pleck, a clinical psychologist at Wellesley

College Center for Research on Women, notes that middle-class liberal males often have a tougher time adjusting their behavior to the new reality of a working wife, while conservative blue-collar workers frequently can make the change more smoothly because they have no choice.[13]

Research conducted by Joann Vanek found that when work is defined as time spent in paid employment plus time spent in household tasks and child care, full-time housewives worked the fewest hours, employed wives the most, and the working hours of married men fell somewhere in between. Working mothers with young children put in about 80 hours a week compared to their husband's 65 hours a week.[14]

The conclusion of John Mirowsky and Catherine Ross of the University of Illinois pretty well sums things up, "In adapting to the wife's employment, the central problem for husbands seems to be one of self-esteem—of getting over any embarrassment, guilt, or apprehension associated with the wife's employment. For wives, the central problem is getting the husband to share the housework."[15]

Joan Huber and Glenna Spitze found that women who think that housework should be divided equally when both husband and wife work full-time are more likely to have considered divorce. They also discovered that the chance that a wife has thought of divorce decreases with each additional task the husband performs at least half the time. Moreover, both spouses in marriages where household duties are more equitably distributed experience less incidence of depression.[16]

One happy note for future wives—mothers are eliminating sexual stereotypes when assigning chores to children. In 1974, a survey conducted by the Roper Organization found that only 39 of the women polled would ask either boys or girls to mend their own clothes. By 1980, 56 percent responded that they would ask either child—and this task was the chores least likely to be evenly assigned.[17] Household duties may no longer be seen by the upcoming generation of men as "woman's work." Trends do indicate that the majority of marriages are shifting toward more equitable relationships where both spouses share household chores.

How do working women with families cope with keeping a house and a job? For one thing, children of working mothers do more housework. Women, who are able to afford it, may hire domestic help. One study found that families with a working mother and father spend 25 percent more in restaurants each year than families where only the father is employed.[18] Some women cut housework time with labor saving devices such as convenience foods or microwave ovens, while some may relax their cleanliness standards (houses where occupants are out all day take less cleaning than occupied houses). Time studies do show that working women are finding ways to reduce the amount of time spent in household tasks and are managing to devote more time to leisure activities.[19]

Many people fear that maternal employment may in some way harm the children involved. Moore and Hofferth have noted, "several researchers have reported that sons of working mothers, especially among middle-class families, have lower grades or lower intelligence scores than do the sons of non-working middle-class mothers. Conversely, daughters of working mothers of all classes and sons of lower-class working mothers have been found to have better academic performances and higher educational aspirations than do children of nonworking mothers."[20]

WOMEN AND PUBLIC POLICY

It was not until 1910 that courts in the United States held that legislation regulating the hours and working conditions for women was constitutional. In past years, legislation regulating minimum

wages for women was held by the courts to be an abridgment of the individual's right of contract. With the movement of women into industrial jobs at the advent of World War II, the struggle against pay discrimination continued. The National War Labor Board (NWLB) issued several orders setting standards for the correction of maladjustments and inequalities in wages. The board also allowed wages for women to be increased without their approval in order to equalize salaries between men and women for similar jobs.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibited different pay rates in the same establishment for work equivalent in skill, effort, and responsibility. However, pay differentials based on seniority, merit, etc., were permitted. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act expanded federal legislation to include the prohibition on unequal treatment based on sex in hiring, firing, promotions, and compensation (such as fringe benefits). Sexual harassment, another form of sex discrimination was also forbidden under Title VII. In this piece of legislation, unwanted conduct or communication of a sexual nature which adversely affected a person's employment relationship or working environment was banned from the work place. Another amendment to Title VII prohibited discrimination based on pregnancy. Utah, itself, passed the Anti-discrimination Act of 1965 which prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex.

Affirmative Action Executive Orders (first established in 1965 and since amended) require employers to take positive steps in equalizing their treatment of women (and minorities). Employers with federal contracts or sub-contracts are required to set goals and time-tables for goal accomplishment in order to correct employment imbalances. (Estimates are that one-third of the work force is covered by affirmative action.)[21]

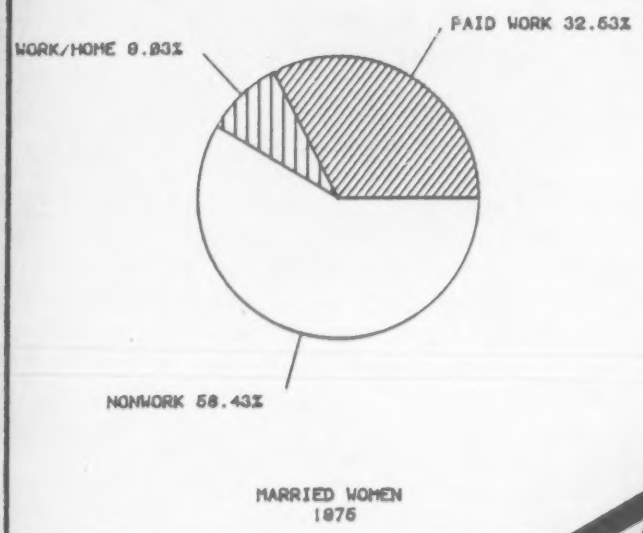
Two pieces of federal legislation attempted to further the rights of women in the field of education. Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments prohibits sex discrimination in all educational programs and activities receiving federal assistance. The Women's Educational Equity Act of 1974 authorizes activities at all levels of education to overcome sex stereo-typing and to achieve equality of women.

The Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) to the U.S. constitution was first introduced to the Congress in 1923 (that's not a typo). The ERA, which would forbid governmental denial or abridgment of equal rights on the basis of sex, finally passed the 92nd Congress in 1972. However, as of June 30, 1982, only 35 states had ratified the amendment—three states short of the necessary number to enact the amendment as law. Utah was one of fifteen states which failed to ratify the amendment. Opposition to the amendment was strong in the State particularly after the Mormon Church took a formal stand against it.

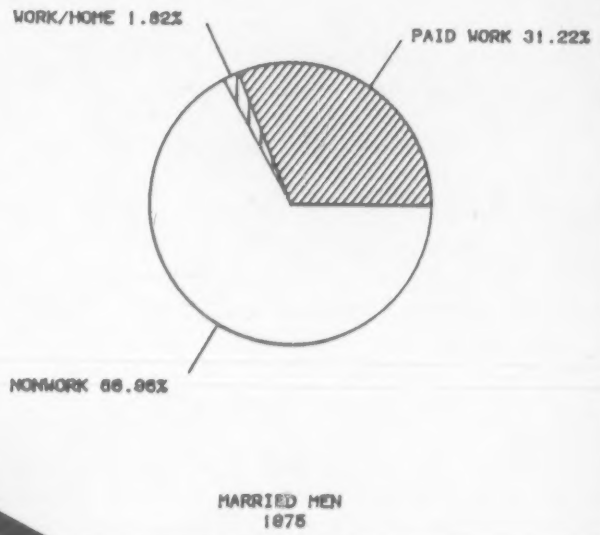
Even with the laws currently on the books, enforcement is difficult and results appear marginal. Studies in the early 1970s indicated that equal employment opportunity legislation improved the status of black men at the expense of all women.[22] Andrea Beller, has argued that the 1972 amendments to Affirmative Action and Title VII only prevented the income gap from widening farther. She believes that this legislation has lowered the chances that men work in mostly male occupations and raised the chances that women do, but has still left the sexes highly segregated into different occupations.[23]

Federal financial policy also effects a woman's work force experience. The federal income tax system, although originally concocted on the premise of "ability to pay" often provides disincentives for female labor force participation. Part of the problem occurs because the tax system was set up with the traditional working husband, homemaking wife, and dependent children in mind. In spite of efforts to reduce it, a marriage penalty exists due to the nature of the tax system. In other words, two married

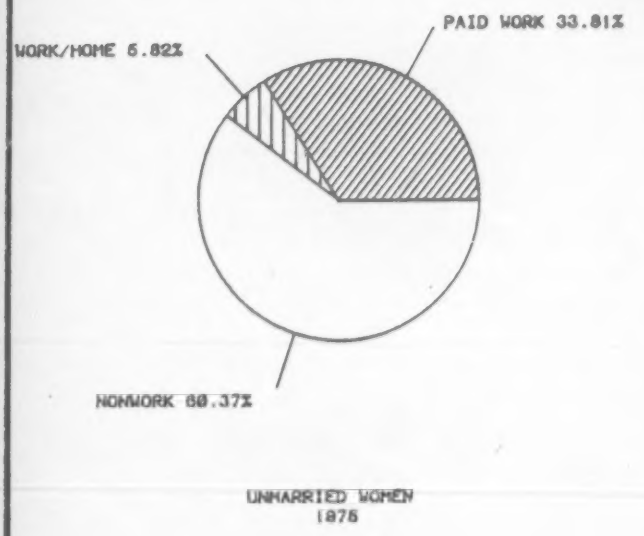
MARRIED WOMEN HAVE THE LONGEST WORK WEEK



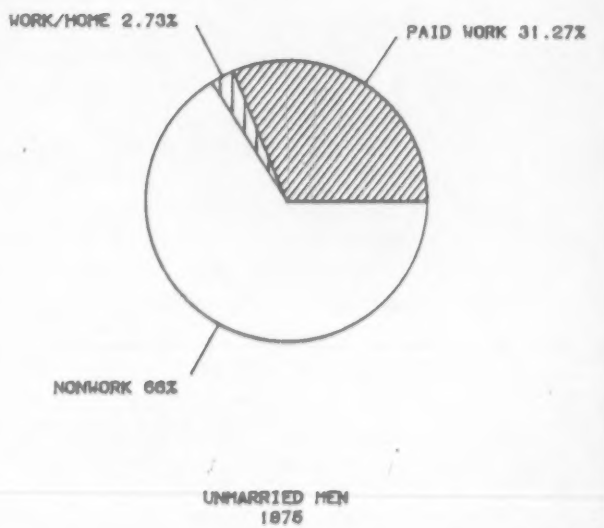
MARRIED WOMEN
1975



MARRIED MEN
1975



UNMARRIED WOMEN
1975



UNMARRIED MEN
1975

CHART 5.2
U.S. WORKING ADULT'USE OF TIME BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

SOURCE: FRANK STAFFORD, MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW,DECEMBER 1980

people pay more tax than they would if they were both single. The tax system treats two-earner families as equal to one-earner families—both pay the same tax on the same amount of income. However, two-earner families have expenses connected with the wife's employment (child care, transportation, clothes, loss of house-care services) that are not carried by one-earner families. Two-earner families end up paying a higher amount of net income to the government in the form of taxes thus discouraging female work force participation. Moreover, in families where both spouses bring home a pay check, the wife's earnings are taxed at the highest marginal rate paid by the husband. One researcher argues that the negative relationship between a husband's income and the wife's employment results solely because of the effective tax rate on the wife's income which raises along with the husband's earnings.[24]

The Social Security system also differentiates between one-earner and two-earner families. In fact, single-earners and two-earner families actually subsidize families with dependent spouses. Working women married to working men pay the most for the benefits they receive because a married woman is guaranteed half of her husbands benefits regardless of her contribution. In many cases, two-earner families may actually pay more and receive less than one-earner families with the same income.

Various committees and government agencies have been set up by the federal government to study and help resolve women's employment difficulties. In 1982, Scott Matheson, then governor of Utah, created the Task Force on Integrating Women into the Work Force. Members of the Task Force were appointed from a wide array businesses, government agencies, and nonprofit organizations. In a report issued in 1984, the Task Force made several recommendations calling on business, the legislature, state agencies, and educational institutions to help get women off welfare and into the work force.[25] Their suggestions focused on eliminating the barriers to equal pay, increasing training, providing tax credits to businesses, providing adequate child care, and health care benefits. While implementation of these recommendations may appear slow in coming, some progress is being made.

TOMORROW

Of course, no one is really sure how female labor force participation will shape up in the future. Different economists present very different predictions. (At times, it is almost embarrassing to be an economist because they can never even agree on the current state of affairs, let alone what will happen tomorrow.) However, nearly everyone believes that women will not lose their labor force share. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, which has historically underestimated the influx of women into the workplace, expects the female labor force participation rate will have increased to 60 percent by the year 2000. Indeed, most economists project the largest employment growth will occur in service sector jobs—jobs which traditionally filled by women. The fact that women are joining the labor force at all generates demand for certain services which in turn creates jobs.

On the other hand, Richard Easterlin believes that young women will not continue to join the work force at the current high rates and may even begin leaving their jobs for home and family. He thinks the country may even be in line for another baby boom. He reasons that as the baby bust generation moves into the labor force there will be a short supply of people to fill positions. Men will be able to obtain fat salaries and their wives may opt to stay home. However, most economists and sociologists expect that families will stay small and women will continue to pour into the labor force.[26]

Although female work force participation seems destined to increase, the trends of the past few decades do not indicate that changes *within* the labor force will be made at a very rapid rate. The great

majority of forecasters do not expect female/male wage differentials and occupational segregation to suddenly disappear. Much of what happens will depend on the state of the economy. Recession and the loss of male jobs may cause a backlash against women who are "taking men's jobs." While perhaps not a totally rational argument, this type of reasoning may hold an appeal to some groups. Enforcement and enactment of equal employment opportunity legislation will also be a factor in the improvement of women's lot in the labor force.

Rapid change appears to be unlikely if only because of the fact that such large numbers of women exist in the the work force already. However, as Linda Waite concludes:

> But the changes now under way—the shift of women into some jobs in male strongholds, especially in the professions, and the strong commitment many young women now show toward their jobs—hold out promise that women's position in the American work force will eventually improve.[27]

You've come a long way lady, but you still have a long way to go.

APPENDIX

TABLE 1.1

UTAH
POPULATION BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBER IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENT CHANGE 1950-1980
TOTAL	688.9	890.6	1,059.3	1,461.0	112.1
FEMALE	341.2	445.7	536.1	736.3	115.8
MALE	347.6	444.9	523.2	724.7	108.5
0-15	242.8	349.9	377.8	486.9	100.5
FEMALE	118.5	171.2	184.8	237.8	100.7
MALE	124.3	178.7	193.0	249.1	100.4
16 AND OLDER	446.0	540.7	681.4	974.2	118.4
FEMALE	222.7	274.5	351.2	498.6	123.9
MALE	223.3	266.3	330.2	475.6	113.0
16-19	45.2	60.6	92.9	113.7	151.5
FEMALE	23.2	31.0	46.9	57.5	147.8
MALE	22.1	29.6	46.0	56.3	154.8
20-24	55.8	60.5	96.0	155.7	179.0
FEMALE	28.5	32.2	50.9	79.8	180.0
MALE	27.3	28.3	45.2	75.9	178.0
25-34	105.1	112.7	131.0	241.2	129.5
FEMALE	52.2	56.0	65.9	118.7	127.4
MALE	52.9	56.8	65.1	122.5	131.6
35-44	85.9	104.7	106.5	142.6	66.0
FEMALE	42.4	52.3	53.7	71.6	68.9
MALE	43.6	52.5	52.8	70.9	62.6
45-54	64.1	83.2	99.4	112.0	74.7
FEMALE	31.2	41.1	50.4	56.7	81.7
MALE	32.8	42.0	49.0	55.4	68.9
55-64	47.5	59.0	77.8	99.9	110.3
FEMALE	23.3	29.7	39.7	51.7	121.9
MALE	24.2	29.3	38.1	48.2	99.2
65 AND OLDER	42.5	60.0	77.9	109.1	156.7
FEMALE	22.0	32.1	43.8	62.7	185.0
MALE	20.4	27.9	34.2	46.4	127.5
MEDIAN AGE	25.1	22.9	23.1	24.2	-3.6
FEMALE	25.1	23.2	23.6	24.5	-2.4
MALE	25.0	22.9	22.5	23.8	-4.8

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.2

UTAH
POPULATION PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980

AGE	1950		1960		1970		1980	
	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
FEMALE	49.5	100.0	50.0	100.0	50.6	100.0	50.4	100.0
MALE	50.5	100.0	50.0	100.0	49.4	100.0	49.6	100.0
0-15	100.0	35.2	100.0	39.3	100.0	35.7	100.0	33.3
FEMALE	48.8	34.7	48.9	38.4	48.9	34.5	48.8	32.3
MALE	51.2	35.8	51.1	40.2	51.1	36.9	51.2	34.4
16 AND OLDER	100.0	64.8	100.0	60.7	100.0	64.3	100.0	66.7
FEMALE	49.9	65.3	50.8	61.6	51.5	65.5	51.2	67.7
MALE	50.1	64.2	49.2	59.9	48.5	63.1	48.8	65.6
16-19	100.0	6.6	100.0	6.8	100.0	8.8	100.0	7.8
FEMALE	51.3	7.0	51.2	7.0	50.5	8.7	50.6	7.8
MALE	48.9	6.7	48.8	6.7	49.5	8.8	49.5	7.8
20-24	100.0	8.1	100.0	6.8	100.0	9.1	100.0	10.7
FEMALE	51.1	8.4	53.2	7.2	53.0	9.5	51.3	10.8
MALE	48.9	7.9	46.8	6.4	47.1	8.6	48.7	10.5
25-34	100.0	15.3	100.0	12.7	100.0	12.4	100.0	16.5
FEMALE	49.7	15.3	49.7	12.6	50.3	12.3	49.2	16.1
MALE	50.3	15.2	50.3	12.8	49.7	12.4	50.8	16.9
35-44	100.0	12.5	100.0	11.8	100.0	10.1	100.0	9.8
FEMALE	49.3	12.4	49.9	11.7	50.4	10.0	50.2	9.7
MALE	50.7	12.5	50.1	11.8	49.6	10.1	49.7	9.8
45-54	100.0	9.3	100.0	9.3	100.0	9.4	100.0	7.7
FEMALE	48.8	9.1	49.5	9.2	50.7	9.4	50.5	7.7
MALE	51.2	9.4	50.5	9.4	49.3	9.4	49.5	7.6
55-64	100.0	6.9	100.0	6.6	100.0	7.3	100.0	6.8
FEMALE	49.1	6.8	50.3	6.7	51.0	7.4	51.8	7.0
MALE	50.9	7.0	49.7	6.6	49.0	7.3	48.2	6.7
65 AND OLDER	100.0	6.2	100.0	6.7	100.0	7.4	100.0	7.5
FEMALE	51.9	6.4	53.5	7.2	56.2	8.2	57.5	8.5
MALE	48.1	5.9	46.5	6.3	43.9	6.5	42.5	6.4

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.3

UNITED STATES
POPULATION BY AGE AND SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBER IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENT CHANGE 1950-1980
TOTAL	151,325.8	179,325.7	203,210.2	226,545.8	49.7
FEMALE	76,139.2	91,022.6	104,328.4	116,498.3	53.0
MALE	75,186.6	88,303.1	98,881.7	110,047.5	46.4
0-15	43,901.2	58,599.3	62.122.9	55,331.5	26.0
FEMALE	21,147.8	28,773.6	30,476.6	27,015.6	27.7
MALE	22,753.4	29,825.7	31,646.2	28,315.4	24.4
16 AND OLDER	107,424.6	120,726.4	141,087.3	171,214.3	59.4
FEMALE	54,991.4	62,249.0	73,851.8	89,482.7	62.7
MALE	52,433.2	58,477.4	67,235.5	81,732.1	55.9
16-19	8,543.8	10,485.2	15,083.0	17,084.8	100.0
FEMALE	4,277.6	5,221.5	7,471.2	8,408.4	96.6
MALE	4,266.2	5,263.7	7,611.9	8,676.3	103.4
20-24	11,410.4	10,803.2	16,104.7	21,293.8	86.6
FEMALE	5,869.9	5,519.9	8,351.0	10,654.5	81.5
MALE	5,540.5	5,283.2	7,753.9	10,639.3	92.0
25-34	23,612.2	22,822.1	24,845.9	37,181.4	57.5
FEMALE	12,158.0	11,648.5	12,678.1	18,747.2	54.2
MALE	11,454.2	11,173.6	12,167.8	18,434.1	60.9
35-44	21,246.2	24,075.5	23,132.8	25,637.6	20.7
FEMALE	10,847.5	12,336.3	11,864.1	13,067.3	20.5
MALE	10,398.7	11,739.2	11,268.7	12,570.2	20.9
45-54	17,183.9	20,625.4	23,158.5	22,732.3	32.3
FEMALE	8,687.8	10,485.7	11,986.2	11,775.2	35.5
MALE	8,496.1	10,139.7	11,172.3	10,957.1	29.0
55-64	13,183.4	15,707.8	18,660.2	21,786.1	65.3
FEMALE	6,636.2	8,138.7	9,836.8	11,593.7	74.7
MALE	6,547.3	7,569.2	8,823.4	10,192.4	55.7
65 AND OLDER	12,244.7	16,207.2	20,101.9	25,498.4	108.2
FEMALE	6,514.5	8,898.3	11,664.2	15,235.8	133.9
MALE	5,730.2	7,309.0	8,437.6	10,262.6	79.1
MEDIAN AGE	30.1	29.4	27.9	30.0	-0.3
FEMALE	30.5	30.3	29.2	31.3	2.6
MALE	29.7	28.5	26.6	28.8	-3.0

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.4

UNITED STATES
POPULATION PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980

AGE	1950		1960		1970		1980	
	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE	PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
FEMALE	50.3	100.0	50.8	100.0	51.3	100.0	51.4	100.0
MALE	49.7	100.0	49.2	100.0	48.7	100.0	48.6	100.0
0-15	100.0	29.0	100.0	32.7	100.0	30.6	100.0	24.4
FEMALE	48.2	27.8	49.1	31.6	49.1	29.2	48.8	23.2
MALE	51.8	30.3	50.9	33.8	50.9	32.0	51.2	25.7
16 AND OLDER	100.0	71.0	100.0	67.3	100.0	69.4	100.0	75.6
FEMALE	51.2	72.2	51.6	68.4	52.3	70.8	52.5	76.8
MALE	48.8	69.7	48.4	66.2	47.7	68.0	47.7	74.3
16-19	100.0	5.6	100.0	5.8	100.0	7.4	100.0	7.5
FEMALE	50.1	5.6	49.8	5.7	49.5	7.2	49.2	7.2
MALE	49.9	5.7	50.2	6.0	50.5	7.7	50.8	7.9
20-24	100.0	7.5	100.0	6.0	100.0	7.9	100.0	9.4
FEMALE	51.4	7.7	51.1	6.1	51.9	8.0	50.0	9.1
MALE	48.6	7.4	48.9	6.0	48.1	7.8	50.0	9.7
25-34	100.0	15.6	100.0	12.7	100.0	12.2	100.0	16.4
FEMALE	51.5	16.0	51.0	12.8	51.0	12.2	50.4	16.1
MALE	48.5	15.2	49.0	12.7	49.0	12.3	49.6	16.8
35-44	100.0	14.0	100.0	13.4	100.0	11.4	100.0	11.3
FEMALE	51.1	14.2	51.2	13.6	51.3	11.4	51.0	11.2
MALE	48.9	13.8	48.8	13.3	48.7	11.4	49.0	11.4
45-54	100.0	11.4	100.0	11.5	100.0	11.4	100.0	10.0
FEMALE	50.6	11.4	50.8	11.5	51.8	11.5	51.8	10.1
MALE	49.4	11.3	49.2	11.5	48.2	11.3	48.2	10.0
55-64	100.0	8.7	100.0	8.8	100.0	9.2	100.0	9.6
FEMALE	50.3	8.7	51.8	8.9	52.7	9.4	53.2	10.0
MALE	49.7	8.7	48.2	8.6	47.3	8.9	46.8	9.3
65 AND OLDER	100.0	8.1	100.0	9.0	100.0	9.9	100.0	11.3
FEMALE	53.2	8.6	54.9	9.8	58.0	11.2	59.8	13.1
MALE	46.8	7.6	45.1	8.3	42.0	8.5	40.2	9.3

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 1.5

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF INDIVIDUALS 16-64 YEARS
BY AGE AND SEX
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980

	PERCENT OF POPULATION 16-64			
	1950	1960	1970	1980
UTAH				
PERCENT BY AGE	58.6	54.0	57.0	59.2
FEMALE	58.8	54.4	57.3	59.2
MALE	58.4	53.6	56.6	59.2
PERCENT BY SEX	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
FEMALE	49.7	50.4	50.9	50.4
MALE	50.3	49.6	49.0	49.6
UNITED STATES				
PERCENT BY AGE	62.9	58.3	59.5	64.3
FEMALE	63.7	58.6	59.6	63.7
MALE	62.1	57.9	59.5	64.9
PERCENT BY SEX	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
FEMALE	50.9	51.0	51.4	51.0
MALE	49.1	49.0	48.6	49.0

SOURCE: CENSUS OF POPULATION FOR YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.6

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
BIRTH, MARRIAGE, & DIVORCE RATES
1950-1984

YEAR	BIRTH RATE		MARRIAGE RATE		DIVORCE & ANNULMENT RATE	
	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.
1950	30.4	23.6	10.2	11.1	3.0	2.6
1951	32.2	24.5	9.7	10.4	3.2	2.5
1952	32.8	24.7	9.3	9.9	3.2	2.5
1953	31.9	24.7	9.4	9.8	3.3	2.5
1954	32.4	24.9	8.4	9.2	2.9	2.4
1955	31.4	24.6	8.0	9.3	2.6	2.3
1956	30.9	24.9	8.2	9.5	2.7	2.3
1957	31.6	25.0	8.1	8.9	1.9	2.2
1958	30.0	24.3	7.8	8.4	2.4	2.1
1959	29.5	24.0	7.7	8.5	2.5	2.2
1960	29.2	23.7	7.9	8.5	2.4	2.2
1961	28.4	23.3	7.9	8.5	2.5	2.3
1962	27.4	22.4	8.0	8.5	2.6	2.2
1963	25.6	21.7	8.4	8.8	2.7	2.3
1964	24.4	21.0	8.7	9.0	3.0	2.4
1965	22.5	19.4	8.8	9.3	2.9	2.5
1966	22.4	18.4	9.5	9.4	3.1	2.5
1967	22.5	17.8	10.0	9.7	3.2	2.6
1968	22.5	17.5	11.2	10.4	3.3	2.9
1969	23.1	17.8	11.1	10.6	3.7	3.2
1970	25.3	18.7	11.2	10.7	3.7	3.5
1971	25.0	17.2	11.3	10.6	4.0	3.7
1972	23.7	15.6	12.2	11.0	4.3	4.0
1973	23.9	14.8	12.7	10.8	4.4	4.3
1974	25.0	14.8	12.7	10.5	4.7	4.6
1975	25.7	14.6	12.0	10.0	5.0	4.8
1976	27.8	14.6	11.5	9.9	4.9	5.0
1977	28.8	15.1	11.4	9.9	5.3	5.0
1978	28.5	15.0	12.1	10.3	5.3	5.1
1979	29.0	15.6	11.8	10.4	5.4	5.3
1980	28.3	15.8	11.6	10.6	5.4	5.2
1981	27.2	15.9	12.1	10.6	5.4	5.3
1982	26.6	16.0	12.0	10.8	5.4	5.1
1983	24.8	15.7				
1984	23.7	15.5 (est.)				

NOTE: RATES ARE PER 1,000 POPULATION.
SOURCE: UTAH VITAL STATISTICS, 1982, UTAH DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, OFFICE OF MANAGEMENT PLANNING.

TABLE 1.7

UTAH
MARITAL STATUS BY SEX
PERSONS 15 AND OLDER
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

MARITAL STATUS	1950[1/] NUMBER	1950[1/] %	1960 NUMBER	1960 %	1970 NUMBER	1970 %	1980 NUMBER	1980 %	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980
TOTAL	488.9	100.0	556.7	100.0	705.8	100.0	947.8	100.0	0.0
FEMALE	234.9	100.0	282.7	100.0	362.9	100.0	461.6	100.0	0.0
MALE	234.0	100.0	274.0	100.0	342.9	100.0	486.2	100.0	0.0
SINGLE	104.9	22.4	111.2	20.0	174.2	24.7	229.5	24.2	1.8
FEMALE	44.7	19.0	49.0	17.3	80.3	22.1	104.5	21.5	2.5
MALE	60.1	25.7	62.2	22.7	93.9	27.4	125.0	27.1	1.4
MARRIED, EXCEPT SEPARATED	332.8	68.9	395.4	71.0	463.4	65.7	607.7	64.1	-4.8
FEMALE	162.0	69.0	197.3	69.8	232.2	64.0	303.7	62.5	-6.5
MALE	160.8	68.7	198.1	72.3	231.3	67.5	304.1	65.9	-2.8
SEPARATED	3.0	0.6	3.5	0.6	5.5	0.8	9.5	1.0	0.4
FEMALE	1.5	0.6	1.9	0.6	3.2	0.9	5.4	1.1	0.5
MALE	1.5	0.6	1.6	0.6	2.2	0.7	4.1	0.9	0.3
WIDOWED	27.5	5.9	32.8	5.9	39.6	5.6	47.3	5.0	-0.9
FEMALE	21.1	9.0	26.7	9.4	33.3	9.2	40.6	8.3	-0.7
MALE	6.4	2.7	6.1	2.2	6.3	1.8	6.7	1.5	-1.2
DIVORCED	10.7	2.3	13.8	2.5	23.0	3.3	53.7	5.7	3.4
FEMALE	5.5	2.3	7.9	2.8	13.9	3.8	31.9	6.6	4.3
MALE	5.1	2.2	5.9	2.2	9.1	2.7	21.8	4.7	2.5

1/ DATA FOR PERSONS 14 AND OLDER.

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.8

UNITED STATES
MARITAL STATUS BY SEX
PERSONS 15 AND OLDER
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

MARITAL STATUS	1950		1960		1970		1980		PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980
	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%	
TOTAL	109,566.0	100.0	123,528.7	100.0	145,210.1	100.0	175,307.6	100.0	0.0
FEMALE	56,054.9	100.0	63,616.1	100.0	75,861.0	100.0	91,482.7	100.0	0.0
MALE	53,511.1	100.0	59,912.6	100.0	69,349.1	100.0	83,825.0	100.0	0.0
SINGLE	23,698.2	21.6	24,909.5	20.2	33,919.6	23.4	45,814.9	26.1	4.5
FEMALE	10,378.7	18.5	10,990.1	17.3	15,604.4	20.6	20,927.3	22.9	4.4
MALE	13,319.5	24.9	13,919.4	23.2	18,315.2	26.4	24,887.6	29.7	4.8
MARRIED, EXCEPT SEPARATED	72,410.4	66.1	83,324.1	67.5	91,843.0	63.2	101,356.3	57.8	-8.3
FEMALE	36,401.7	64.9	41,574.3	65.4	45,906.4	60.5	50,492.1	55.2	-9.7
MALE	36,008.7	67.3	41,749.7	69.7	45,936.6	66.2	50,864.2	60.7	-6.6
SEPARATED	2,018.8	1.8	2,189.6	1.8	2,782.0	1.9	3,921.7	2.2	0.4
FEMALE	1,168.1	2.1	1,316.7	2.1	1,738.0	2.3	2,358.6	2.6	0.5
MALE	850.7	1.6	872.9	1.5	1,044.0	1.5	1,563.1	1.9	0.3
WIDOWED	8,995.9	8.2	9,952.0	8.1	11,738.4	8.1	13,345.2	7.6	-0.6
FEMALE	6,733.7	12.0	7,880.2	12.4	9,609.9	12.7	11,240.4	12.3	0.3
MALE	2,262.2	4.2	2,071.7	3.5	2,128.5	3.1	2,104.8	2.5	-1.7
DIVORCED	2,442.7	2.2	3,153.5	2.6	4,927.1	3.4	10,869.5	6.2	4.0
FEMALE	1,372.7	2.4	1,854.7	2.9	3,002.3	4.0	6,464.2	7.1	4.7
MALE	1,070.0	2.0	1,298.8	2.2	1,924.8	2.8	4,405.3	5.3	3.3

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.9

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
NUMBER OF FAMILIES AND PERSONS PER FAMILY
1960, 1970, AND 1980

	1960	1970	1980
UTAH			
NUMBER OF FAMILIES	209,373	249,741	354,171
PERSONS PER FAMILY	3.99	3.88	3.66
UNITED STATES			
NUMBER OF FAMILIES	45,128,397	51,168,599	59,190,133
PERSONS PER FAMILY	3.65	3.57	3.27

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.10

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
CHILDREN EVER BORN PER 1,000 WOMEN
1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980

AGE	CHILDREN EVER BORN PER 1,000 WOMEN							
	1950 1/		1960		1970		1980	
	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.
WOMEN 15-44	1,728	1,395	2,087	1,746	1,798	1,619	1,658	1,302
EVER-MARRIED	2,242	1,859	2,780	2,314	2,692	2,360	2,390	1,927
WOMEN 15-24	516	438	592	540	354	360	426	317
EVER-MARRIED	1,061	993	1,378	1,304	972	995	1,018	855
WOMEN 25-34	2,155	1,646	2,795	2,236	2,577	2,138	2,088	1,476
EVER-MARRIED	2,279	1,854	2,954	2,447	2,766	2,374	2,338	1,688
WOMEN 35-44	2,925	2,113	3,360	2,468	3,787	2,956	3,515	2,639
EVER-MARRIED	3,065	2,302	3,435	2,627	3,927	3,132	3,637	2,767

1/ U.S. FIGURES EXCLUDES DATA FOR ALASKA AND HAWAII.
SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 1.11

UTAH & UNITED STATES
HIGH SCHOOL & COLLEGE GRADUATES
BY SEX-PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980

	PERCENT HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES				PERCENT COMPLETED 4 OR MORE YEARS COLLEGE			
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980
UTAH								
TOTAL 14 & OLDER	-	-	60.8	73.9	-	-	10.4	15.0
FEMALE	-	-	61.7	73.9	-	-	7.7	11.4
MALE	-	-	59.8	73.9	-	-	13.3	18.8
14-19 YEARS	-	-	20.5	28.3	-	-	-	-
FEMALE	-	-	23.3	31.0	-	-	-	-
MALE	-	-	17.7	25.5	-	-	-	-
20-24 YEARS	-	-	87.3	86.8	-	-	7.6	6.4
FEMALE	-	-	87.0	87.7	-	-	8.6	7.6
MALE	-	-	87.6	86.0	-	-	6.4	5.1
25 YEARS & OVER	49.9	55.8	67.3	80.0	7.8	10.2	14.0	19.9
FEMALE	51.5	56.8	67.3	79.1	6.0	7.1	9.6	14.5
MALE	48.3	54.9	67.2	81.0	9.5	13.4	18.6	25.5
UNITED STATES								
TOTAL 14 & OLDER	33.4	39.9	50.0	63.5	5.2	6.5	8.8	13.4
FEMALE	35.5	41.5	50.8	63.6	4.4	5.0	6.9	11.0
MALE	31.3	38.2	49.1	63.4	6.0	8.1	10.9	16.0
14-19 YEARS	16.9	16.8	19.2	25.8	-	-	-	-
FEMALE	19.1	18.6	20.7	28.0	0.1	-	-	-
MALE	14.7	15.1	17.7	23.7	-	-	-	-
20-24 YEARS	52.4	63.6	78.7	82.2	4.4	5.6	8.9	8.9
FEMALE	55.9	65.2	78.9	83.6	4.5	4.9	8.3	9.3
MALE	48.8	61.9	78.4	80.8	4.4	6.4	9.6	8.6
25 YEARS & OVER	33.4	41.1	52.3	66.5	6.0	7.7	10.7	16.2
FEMALE	35.1	42.5	52.8	65.8	5.0	5.8	8.1	12.8
MALE	31.5	39.5	48.4	67.3	7.1	9.7	13.5	20.1

NOTE: 1980 DATA INCLUDES INFORMATION FOR THOSE 15 AND OLDER.
SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION; 1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980.

TABLE 1.12

UTAH
FEMALE COLLEGE ENROLLMENT BY YEAR
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND AGE
1980

	COLLEGE ENROLLMENT BY YEAR						
	TOTAL	1	2	3	4	5 OR 6	7 OR MORE
FEMALE DISTRIBUTION BY SEX	43.8	48.9	45.3	43.1	42.7	39.8	27.1
15-17 YEARS	51.4	54.1	30.6	-	-	-	-
18-19 YEARS	58.9	55.1	68.6	78.5	81.5	-	-
20-24 YEARS	41.0	31.3	35.6	45.0	47.1	46.3	27.5
25-34 YEARS	32.9	45.0	39.8	30.7	29.8	32.8	22.3
35-44 YEARS	53.6	73.8	57.8	50.4	57.4	47.0	35.3
45-54 YEARS	55.4	72.8	52.5	65.3	56.2	51.3	37.3
55-64 YEARS	56.6	66.2	49.6	50.8	65.5	57.9	38.6
65 AND OVER	59.8	75.0	60.1	44.6	60.8	47.0	60.7
FEMALE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
15-17 YEARS	0.4	1.2	0.1	-	-	-	-
18-19 YEARS	25.2	60.2	32.4	4.5	0.3	-	-
20-24 YEARS	40.5	16.6	41.5	70.9	60.4	30.7	3.9
25-34 YEARS	19.9	11.4	14.6	16.2	23.4	43.7	53.0
35-44 YEARS	8.2	6.3	7.1	4.9	8.5	14.6	26.0
45-54 YEARS	3.7	2.7	2.7	2.6	4.1	7.0	10.9
55-64 YEARS	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.4	1.9	3.1	3.7
65 AND OVER	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.5	1.4	0.9	2.5

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION, 1980.

TABLE 2.1

UTAH
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
BY SEX AND AGE
ANNUAL AVERAGES
1981-1984

AGE	1981	1982	1983	1984
16 AND OLDER	65.4	66.3	66.2	67.0
FEMALE	50.8	52.8	52.3	54.4
MALE	80.9	80.5	81.3	80.7
16-19	68.1	65.8	61.9	66.2
FEMALE	64.6	65.6	57.2	64.2
MALE	71.4	66.1	67.5	68.4
20 AND OLDER	68.1	66.4	66.6	67.1
FEMALE	49.3	51.7	51.7	53.4
MALE	82.0	82.2	82.7	81.9
20-24	76.8	75.3	76.6	78.8
FEMALE		63.4	66.5	71.1
MALE		88.0	87.0	86.8
25-34	77.1	76.1	76.8	78.7
FEMALE		56.6	58.2	61.2
MALE		94.7	95.4	95.9
35-44	77.4	81.7	80.2	81.5
FEMALE		67.5	64.8	66.9
MALE		97.3	96.7	96.7
45-54	74.3	79.6	79.1	80.2
FEMALE		63.9	63.3	66.4
MALE		94.9	96.4	95.1
55-64	58.7	57.3	55.5	56.5
FEMALE		43.9	41.4	41.1
MALE		72.7	70.0	73.3
65 AND OLDER	12.8	13.0	13.2	11.6
FEMALE		8.7	7.7	7.6
MALE		18.7	21.0	17.2

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEYS 1981, 1982, 1983, AND 1984.

TABLE 2.2

UTAH
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE CIVILIAN NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION
BY SEX AND AGE
1984
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE	CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYMENT	UNEMPLOYMENT	
				TOTAL	RATE
16 AND OLDER	67.0	721	674	47	6.5
FEMALE	54.4	304	283	22	7.1
MALE	80.7	417	391	25	6.1
16-19	66.2	67	56	11	16.6
FEMALE	64.2	34	28	6	19.1
MALE	68.4	33	28	5	14.0
20-24	78.8	121	112	9	7.4
FEMALE	71.1	56	52	4	6.7
MALE	86.8	65	60	5	8.0
25-34	78.7	216	202	14	6.4
FEMALE	61.2	84	77	6	7.5
MALE	95.9	132	125	8	5.8
35-44	81.5	140	132	7	5.3
FEMALE	66.9	58	55	3	5.6
MALE	96.7	81	77	4	5.1
45-54	80.2	97	94	3	3.0
FEMALE	66.4	42	41	1	2.5
MALE	95.1	56	54	2	3.3
55-64	56.5	64	62	2	3.6
FEMALE	41.1	24	24	1	2.5
MALE	73.3	40	38	2	4.2
65 AND OLDER	11.6	16	16	a	1.6
FEMALE	7.6	6	6	a	1.2
MALE	17.2	10	10	a	1.8

a = LESS THAN 1,000.
SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY 1984.

TABLE 2.3

UNITED STATES
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
BY SEX AND AGE
ANNUAL AVERAGES
1981-1984

AGE	1981	1982	1983	1984
16 AND OLDER	64.4	64.4	64.0	64.4
FEMALE	52.3	52.7	52.9	53.6
MALE	77.5	77.2	76.4	76.4
16-19	56.5	54.7	53.5	53.9
FEMALE	49.4	51.6	50.8	51.8
MALE	60.6	58.1	56.2	56.0
20-24	77.8	78.1	77.2	77.6
FEMALE	69.1	70.1	69.9	70.4
MALE	86.6	86.0	84.8	85.0
25-34	80.8	81.3	81.3	81.8
FEMALE	66.9	68.1	69.0	69.8
MALE	95.1	94.9	94.2	94.4
35-44	80.8	81.4	81.6	82.4
FEMALE	66.9	67.9	68.7	70.1
MALE	95.5	95.4	95.2	95.4
45-54	75.8	75.9	76.0	76.5
FEMALE	61.1	61.6	61.9	62.9
MALE	91.5	91.2	91.2	91.2
55-64	55.3	55.0	54.5	54.2
FEMALE	41.5	41.8	41.5	41.7
MALE	70.8	70.2	69.4	68.5
65 AND OLDER	12.4	11.9	11.7	11.1
FEMALE	8.1	7.9	7.8	7.5
MALE	18.5	17.8	17.4	16.3

NOTE: FIGURES FOR 1981 AND 1982 REPRESENT TOTAL LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES.
SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS, JANUARY ISSUES 1981-1984.

TABLE 2.4

UNITED STATES
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE CIVILIAN NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION
BY SEX AND AGE
1984
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE	CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYMENT	UNEMPLOYMENT	
				TOTAL	RATE
16 AND OLDER	64.4	113,544	105,005	8,539	7.5
FEMALE	53.6	49,709	45,915	3,794	7.6
MALE	76.4	63,835	59,091	4,744	7.4
16-19	53.9	7,943	6,444	1,499	18.9
FEMALE	51.8	3,810	3,122	687	18.0
MALE	56.0	4,134	3,322	812	19.6
20-24	77.6	16,046	14,207	1,838	11.5
FEMALE	70.4	7,451	6,636	815	10.9
MALE	85.0	8,594	7,571	1,023	11.9
25-34	81.8	32,723	30,348	2,374	7.3
FEMALE	69.8	14,234	13,182	1,052	7.4
MALE	94.4	18,488	17,166	1,322	7.2
35-44	82.4	24,933	23,598	1,335	5.4
FEMALE	70.1	10,896	10,289	607	5.6
MALE	95.4	14,037	13,309	728	5.2
45-54	76.5	17,006	16,178	828	4.9
FEMALE	62.9	7,230	6,852	378	5.2
MALE	91.2	9,776	9,326	450	4.6
55-64	54.2	11,961	11,395	566	4.7
FEMALE	41.7	4,911	4,700	211	4.3
MALE	68.5	7,050	6,694	356	5.0
65 AND OLDER	11.1	2,933	2,835	97	3.3
FEMALE	7.5	1,177	1,133	45	3.8
MALE	16.3	1,755	1,703	53	3.0

SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS, JANUARY 1984.

TABLE 2.5

UTAH
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF CIVILIAN NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION
BY SEX & MARITAL STATUS
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGES
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

UTAH	LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE	CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYMENT	UNEMPLOYMENT TOTAL	UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
TOTAL	67.0	721	674	47	6.5
FEMALE	54.4	304	283	22	7.1
MALE	80.7	417	391	25	6.1
MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT	67.4	477	455	22	4.7
FEMALE	52.1	184	173	10	5.7
MALE	82.5	293	282	12	4.1
SINGLE, NEVER MARRIED	74.7	164	146	18	11.2
FEMALE	71.5	73	65	8	11.0
MALE	77.5	91	81	10	11.4
OTHER MARITAL STATUS	54.0	79	73	6	7.6
FEMALE	45.5	47	44	3	6.5
MALE	74.5	32	29	3	9.3
HEAD W/OTHER RELATIVES	80.9	329	315	14	4.2
FEMALE	65.2	30	28	2	7.3
MALE	82.9	299	288	12	3.8

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY FOR 1984.

TABLE 2.6

UTAH
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES
BY AGE AND SEX
1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980
16 AND OLDER	52.5	57.4	58.9	64.2	11.7
FEMALE	25.2	33.5	41.5	49.8	24.6
MALE	82.5	82.3	77.4	79.3	- 3.2
16-19	38.5	45.7	50.9	57.1	18.6
FEMALE	29.0	36.0	41.6	53.4	24.4
MALE	48.4	56.0	60.5	61.3	12.9
20-24	55.2	59.1	63.6	70.5	15.3
FEMALE	34.0	40.3	53.2	60.9	26.9
MALE	77.7	81.6	75.7	83.0	5.3
25-34	57.8	61.2	64.9	73.6	15.8
FEMALE	22.9	28.0	39.5	54.2	31.3
MALE	92.3	94.7	90.6	94.2	1.9
35-44	62.3	67.2	72.0	77.0	14.7
FEMALE	28.3	37.9	48.9	59.5	31.2
MALE	96.0	96.9	95.9	96.5	0.5
45-54	62.5	70.4	73.5	75.6	13.1
FEMALE	29.6	44.9	53.2	58.7	29.1
MALE	94.4	95.5	94.3	93.7	- 0.7
55-64	55.8	61.5	64.7	57.4	1.6
FEMALE	22.4	35.7	44.9	42.2	19.8
MALE	87.6	87.7	85.5	73.9	-13.7
65 AND OLDER	25.2	21.3	18.8	14.5	-10.1
FEMALE	6.5	10.0	9.7	8.8	2.3
MALE	45.4	34.3	30.3	22.1	-23.3

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION, 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 2.7

UNITED STATES
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980
16 AND OLDER	54.0	60.0	58.0	62.0	8.0
FEMALE	30.0	37.7	43.3	49.9	19.9
MALE	80.0	83.3	79.7	75.1	4.9
16-17	28.0	37.0	30.0	36.9	8.9
FEMALE	18.0	29.1	34.9	34.3	16.3
MALE	38.0	46.0	47.0	39.3	1.3
18-19	35.0	60.0	54.0	61.2	26.2
FEMALE	44.0	50.9	53.6	56.8	12.8
MALE	67.0	69.3	66.7	65.5	- 1.5
20-24	62.0	67.0	68.0	75.2	13.2
FEMALE	43.2	46.1	57.7	67.8	24.6
MALE	81.9	88.1	83.3	82.7	0.8
25-34	60.0	66.0	69.0	78.7	18.7
FEMALE	31.7	36.0	45.0	64.8	33.1
MALE	89.3	97.5	96.4	92.8	3.5
35-44	64.0	70.0	72.0	79.1	15.1
FEMALE	34.9	43.4	51.1	64.7	29.8
MALE	93.6	97.7	96.9	94.1	0.5
45-54	62.0	72.0	73.0	73.9	11.9
FEMALE	32.8	49.8	54.4	58.8	26.0
MALE	91.7	95.7	94.2	90.2	- 1.5
55-64	53.0	61.0	57.0	55.5	2.5
FEMALE	23.4	37.2	43.0	41.6	18.2
MALE	83.4	86.8	83.0	71.3	-12.1
65 AND OLDER	24.0	21.0	16.0	12.6	-11.4
FEMALE	8.0	10.8	9.7	8.2	0.2
MALE	41.5	33.1	26.8	19.3	-22.2

NOTE: THESE FIGURES FOR THE CENSUS ARE PROVIDED FOR COMPARISON TO UTAH CENSUS FIGURES AND WILL DIFFER FROM ANNUAL AVERAGES WHICH MAY BE SHOWN ELSEWHERE.

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION, 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 2.0

UTAH & UNITED STATES
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION
BY MARITAL STATUS AND PRESENCE OF CHILDREN
1960, 1970 AND 1980

	FEMALES OVER 16 YEARS											
				WITH OWN CHILDREN UNDER 6 YEARS			WITH OWN CHILDREN 6-17 YEARS ONLY			WITH NO OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18		
	TOTAL	MARRIED, HUSBAND PRESENT	OTHER MARITAL STATUS	TOTAL	MARRIED, HUSBAND PRESENT	OTHER	TOTAL	MARRIED, HUSBAND PRESENT	OTHER	TOTAL	MARRIED, HUSBAND PRESENT	OTHER
UTAH												
1960-TOTAL 1/	290,046	193,432	96,614	86,894	82,711	4,183	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
IN LABOR FORCE	94,103	56,667	37,436	16,935	15,137	1,798	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
PERCENT	32.4	29.3	38.7	19.5	18.3	43.0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1970-TOTAL	351,169	225,136	126,033	84,707	78,117	6,590	72,529	64,460	8,069	193,933	82,559	111,374
IN LABOR FORCE	145,799	90,124	55,675	24,768	21,625	3,143	38,625	32,931	5,694	82,406	35,568	46,838
PERCENT	41.5	40.0	44.2	29.2	27.7	47.7	53.3	51.1	70.6	42.5	43.1	42.1
1980-TOTAL	498,563	314,122	184,441	131,791	119,799	11,992	85,854	71,996	13,858	280,918	122,327	158,591
IN LABOR FORCE	246,963	142,290	104,673	49,346	42,179	7,167	55,339	43,626	11,713	142,278	56,485	85,793
PERCENT	49.5	45.3	56.8	37.4	35.2	59.8	64.5	60.6	84.5	50.6	46.2	54.1
UNITED STATES (000's)												
1960-TOTAL 1/	664,961.3	40,334.8	24,626.5	14,432.4	13,404.5	1,027.9	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
IN LABOR FORCE	22,409.8	12,365.4	10,044.4	3,049.9	2,575.3	474.6	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
PERCENT	34.5	30.7	40.8	21.1	19.2	46.2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1970-TOTAL	73,851.8	44,411.8	129,434.0	13,727.3	12,151.4	1,575.9	14,681.2	12,619.5	2,061.6	45,443.3	19,640.9	25,802.4
IN LABOR FORCE	30,546.7	17,417.6	13,129.1	4,227.4	3,424.2	803.2	7,354.4	5,949.6	1,404.8	18,964.9	8,043.8	10,921.1
PERCENT	41.4	39.2	44.6	30.8	28.2	51.0	50.1	47.1	68.1	41.7	41.0	42.3
1980-TOTAL	89,482.2	49,369.4	40,112.8	13,618.8	11,365.2	2,253.6	17,016.2	13,556.5	3,459.7	58,847.2	24,447.7	34,399.5
IN LABOR FORCE	44,668.5	24,275.8	20,392.7	6,220.5	4,990.3	1,230.2	10,726.1	8,149.3	2,576.8	27,721.9	11,136.2	16,585.7
PERCENT	49.9	49.2	50.8	45.7	43.9	54.6	63.0	60.1	74.5	47.1	45.6	48.2

1/ 1960 DATA FOR FEMALES 14 YEARS AND OLDER.
SOURCE: 1960, 1970 AND 1980 DATA FROM CENSUS DATA.

TABLE 2.9

UTAH
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENT CHANGE 1950-1980
16 AND OLDER	238.1	309.7	399.2	619.7	160.3
FEMALE	56.2	92.4	145.6	246.4	338.4
MALE	181.9	217.2	253.5	373.3	106.2
16-19	17.4	27.7	40.1	64.9	273.0
FEMALE	6.7	11.2	17.4	30.7	358.2
MALE	10.7	16.6	22.7	34.2	219.6
20-24	30.6	35.0	60.3	109.8	258.8
FEMALE	9.8	13.0	27.1	48.4	393.9
MALE	20.9	22.0	33.2	61.4	193.8
25-34	60.8	68.1	84.7	177.4	191.8
FEMALE	12.0	15.6	25.9	64.2	435.0
MALE	48.8	52.5	58.7	113.2	132.0
35-44	53.0	70.1	76.4	109.7	107.0
FEMALE	12.0	20.0	26.3	42.6	255.0
MALE	41.0	50.2	50.1	67.1	63.7
45-54	39.6	59.1	73.3	84.7	113.9
FEMALE	9.3	18.7	26.9	33.2	257.0
MALE	30.4	40.4	46.4	51.5	69.4
55-64	26.1	36.8	49.8	57.3	119.5
FEMALE	5.1	10.8	17.7	21.8	327.5
MALE	20.9	26.0	32.1	35.5	69.9
65 AND OLDER	10.6	12.8	14.6	15.8	49.1
FEMALE	1.4	3.2	4.3	5.5	292.9
MALE	9.2	9.5	10.3	10.3	12.0

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION, 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 2.10

UTAH
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX AND AGE
ANNUAL AVERAGES
1981-1984
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

	1981		1982		1983		1984	
AGE	TOTAL	% BY SEX	TOTAL	% BY SEX	TOTAL	% BY SEX	TOTAL	% BY SEX
16 AND OLDER	646	100.0	668	100.0	691	100.0	721	100.0
FEMALE	258	39.9	273	40.9	285	41.2	304	42.2
MALE	388	60.1	395	59.1	406	58.8	417	57.8
16-19	70	100.0	67	100.0	62	100.0	67	100.0
FEMALE	32	45.7	32	48.5	31	49.2	34	50.7
MALE	38	54.3	34	51.5	32	50.8	33	49.3
20 AND OLDER	576	100.0	601	100.0	629	100.0	654	100.0
FEMALE	226	39.2	240	39.9	254	40.4	270	41.3
MALE	351	60.8	361	60.1	375	59.6	384	58.7
20-24	107	100.0	104	100.0	120	100.0	121	100.0
FEMALE	--	--	45	43.3	53	44.2	56	46.3
MALE	--	--	59	56.7	67	55.8	65	53.7
25-34	202	100.0	208	100.0	203	100.0	216	100.0
FEMALE	--	--	76	36.5	77	37.9	84	38.9
MALE	--	--	132	63.5	126	62.1	132	61.1
35-44	114	100.0	128	100.0	132	100.0	140	100.0
FEMALE	--	--	55	43.0	55	41.7	58	41.4
MALE	--	--	73	57.0	77	58.3	81	57.9
45-54	80	100.0	86	100.0	100	100.0	97	100.0
FEMALE	--	--	34	39.5	42	42.0	42	43.3
MALE	--	--	52	60.5	58	58.0	56	57.7
55-64	96	100.0	58	100.0	58	100.0	64	100.0
FEMALE	--	--	24	41.4	22	37.9	24	37.5
MALE	--	--	34	58.6	36	62.1	40	62.5
65 AND OLDER	17	100.0	17	100.0	17	100.0	16	100.0
FEMALE	--	--	6	37.5	6	35.3	6	37.5
MALE	--	--	10	62.5	11	64.7	10	62.5

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY 1981, 1982, 1983, AND 1984.

TABLE 2.11

UTAH
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980

AGE	1950		1960		1970		1980		PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980	
	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE
16 AND OLDER	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0
FEMALE	23.6	100.0	29.8	100.0	36.5	100.0	39.8	100.0	16.2	0.0
MALE	76.4	100.0	70.2	100.0	63.5	100.0	60.2	100.0	--	0.0
16-19	100.0	7.3	100.0	8.9	100.0	10.0	100.0	10.5	0.0	3.2
FEMALE	38.5	11.9	40.3	12.1	43.4	12.0	47.3	12.5	8.8	0.6
MALE	61.5	5.9	59.7	7.6	56.6	9.0	52.7	9.2	--	3.3
20-24	100.0	12.9	100.0	11.3	100.0	15.1	100.0	17.7	0.0	4.8
FEMALE	31.9	17.4	37.1	14.1	44.9	18.6	44.1	19.6	12.2	2.2
MALE	68.1	11.5	62.9	10.1	55.1	13.1	55.9	16.4	--	4.9
25-34	100.0	25.5	100.0	22.0	100.0	21.2	100.0	28.6	0.0	3.1
FEMALE	19.7	21.4	22.9	16.9	30.6	17.8	36.2	26.1	16.5	4.7
MALE	80.3	26.8	77.1	24.2	69.4	23.2	7.4	30.3	--	3.5
35-44	100.0	22.3	100.0	22.6	100.0	19.1	100.0	17.7	0.0	-4.6
FEMALE	22.6	21.4	28.5	21.6	34.4	18.1	38.8	17.3	16.2	-4.1
MALE	77.4	22.5	71.5	23.1	65.6	19.8	61.2	18.0	--	-4.5
45-54	100.0	16.6	100.0	19.1	100.0	18.4	100.0	13.7	0.0	-2.9
FEMALE	23.4	16.5	31.6	20.2	37.6	18.5	39.2	13.5	15.8	-3.0
MALE	76.6	16.7	68.4	18.6	63.3	18.3	60.8	13.8	--	-2.9
55-64	100.0	11.0	100.0	11.9	100.0	12.5	100.0	9.2	0.0	-1.8
FEMALE	19.6	9.1	29.3	11.7	35.5	12.2	38.0	8.8	18.4	-0.3
MALE	80.4	11.5	70.7	12.0	64.5	12.7	62.0	9.5	--	-2.0
65 AND OLDER	100.0	4.5	100.0	4.1	100.0	3.7	100.0	2.5	0.0	-2.0
FEMALE	13.2	2.5	25.2	3.5	29.5	3.0	34.8	2.2	21.6	-0.3
MALE	86.8	5.1	74.8	4.4	70.5	4.1	65.2	2.8	--	-2.3

SOURCE: CENSUS OF POPULATION 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 2.12

UNITED STATES
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970, AND 1980
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	PERCENT CHANGE 1950-1980
16 AND OLDER	58,201.2	67,220.1	80,051.0	104,449.8	79.5
FEMALE	16,411.7	22,094.0	30,501.8	44,523.3	171.3
MALE	41,789.5	45,126.1	49,549.2	59,926.5	43.4
16-19	3,299.1	4,013.0	5,913.4	8,148.6	147.0
FEMALE	1,329.1	1,690.3	2,600.2	3,821.6	187.5
MALE	1,970.0	2,322.7	3,313.2	4,327.0	119.6
20-24	6,773.1	6,388.1	10,022.4	15,423.9	127.7
FEMALE	2,528.5	2,453.9	4,665.3	7,160.0	183.2
MALE	4,244.6	3,934.2	5,357.1	8,263.9	94.7
25-34	14,099.5	14,188.3	16,671.5	28,767.1	104.0
FEMALE	3,856.3	4,084.7	5,679.1	12,111.8	214.1
MALE	10,243.2	10,103.6	10,992.4	16,655.2	62.6
35-44	13,517.3	16,134.4	16,394.0	20,054.9	48.4
FEMALE	3,785.8	5,233.4	5,959.6	8,446.2	123.1
MALE	9,731.5	10,901.0	10,434.4	11,608.7	19.3
45-54	10,632.5	14,246.8	16,557.2	16,754.2	57.6
FEMALE	2,853.7	4,874.9	6,288.1	6,916.5	142.4
MALE	7,778.8	9,371.9	10,269.1	9,837.7	26.5
55-64	6,995.8	9,108.6	11,231.7	12,079.9	72.7
FEMALE	1,551.0	2,839.8	4,139.1	4,823.9	211.0
MALE	5,444.8	6,268.8	7,092.6	7,256.0	33.3
65 AND OLDER	2,883.8	3,141.0	3,261.0	3,221.3	11.2
FEMALE	507.3	917.0	1,170.6	1,243.4	145.1
MALE	2,376.5	2,224.0	2,090.4	1,977.9	- 16.8

SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION, 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 2.13

UNITED STATES
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX AND AGE
1981-1984
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

	1981		1982		1983		1984	
AGE	TOTAL	% BY SEX	TOTAL	% BY SEX	TOTAL	% BY SEX	TOTAL	% BY SEX
16 AND OLDER	108,670	100.0	112,384	100.0	111,550	100.0	113,544	100.0
FEMALE	46,696	43.0	47,944	42.7	48,503	43.5	49,709	43.8
MALE	61,974	57.0	64,440	57.3	63,047	56.5	63,835	56.2
16-19	8,988	100.0	8,803	100.0	8,171	100.0	7,943	100.0
FEMALE	4,211	46.9	4,082	46.4	3,868	47.3	3,810	48.0
MALE	4,777	53.1	4,721	53.6	4,303	52.7	4,134	52.0
20-24	16,099	100.0	16,941	100.0	16,052	100.0	16,046	100.0
FEMALE	7,451	46.3	7,568	44.7	7,451	46.4	7,451	46.4
MALE	8,648	53.7	9,373	55.3	8,601	53.6	8,594	53.6
25-34	30,392	100.0	31,903	100.0	31,834	100.0	32,723	100.0
FEMALE	12,912	42.5	13,458	42.2	13,796	43.3	14,234	43.5
MALE	17,479	57.5	18,445	57.8	18,038	56.7	18,488	56.5
35-44	21,211	100.0	22,717	100.0	23,611	100.0	24,933	100.0
FEMALE	9,045	42.6	9,657	42.5	10,213	43.3	10,896	43.7
MALE	12,166	57.4	13,060	57.5	13,398	56.7	14,037	56.3
45-54	16,970	100.0	16,927	100.0	16,851	100.0	17,006	100.0
FEMALE	7,101	41.8	7,106	42.0	7,105	42.2	7,230	42.5
MALE	9,868	58.2	9,821	58.0	9,746	57.8	9,776	57.5
55-64	11,969	100.0	12,063	100.0	11,992	100.0	11,961	100.0
FEMALE	4,799	40.1	4,888	40.5	4,873	40.6	4,911	41.1
MALE	7,170	50.9	7,175	59.5	7,119	59.4	7,050	58.9
65 AND OLDER	3,042	100.0	3,030	100.0	3,040	100.0	2,933	100.0
FEMALE	1,176	38.7	1,185	39.1	1,198	39.4	1,177	40.1
MALE	1,866	61.3	1,845	60.9	1,842	60.6	1,755	59.9

SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS, JANUARY ISSUES 1981, 1982, 1983 AND 1984.

TABLE 2.14

UNITED STATES
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX AND AGE
1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980

AGE	1950		1960		1970		1980		PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1950-1980	
	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE	% BY SEX	% BY AGE
16 AND OLDER	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0
FEMALE	28.2	100.0	32.9	100.0	38.1	100.0	42.6	100.0	14.4	0.0
MALE	71.8	100.0	67.1	100.0	61.9	100.0	57.4	100.0	--	0.0
16-19	100.0	5.7	100.0	6.0	100.0	7.4	100.0	7.8	0.0	2.1
FEMALE	40.3	8.1	42.1	7.7	44.0	8.5	46.9	8.6	6.6	0.5
MALE	59.7	4.7	57.9	5.1	56.0	6.7	53.1	7.2	--	2.5
20-24	100.0	11.6	100.0	9.5	100.0	12.5	100.0	14.8	0.0	3.2
FEMALE	37.3	15.4	38.4	11.1	46.5	15.3	46.4	16.1	9.1	0.7
MALE	62.7	10.2	61.6	8.7	53.5	10.8	53.6	13.8	--	3.6
25-34	100.0	24.2	100.0	21.1	100.0	20.8	100.0	27.5	0.0	3.3
FEMALE	27.4	23.5	28.8	18.5	34.1	18.6	42.1	27.2	14.7	3.7
MALE	72.6	24.5	71.2	22.4	65.9	22.2	57.9	27.8	--	3.3
35-44	100.0	23.2	100.0	24.0	100.0	20.5	100.0	19.2	0.0	-4.0
FEMALE	28.0	23.1	32.4	23.7	36.4	19.5	42.1	19.0	14.1	-4.1
MALE	72.0	23.3	67.6	24.2	63.6	21.1	57.9	19.4	--	-3.9
45-54	100.0	18.3	100.0	21.2	100.0	20.7	100.0	16.0	0.0	-2.3
FEMALE	26.8	17.4	34.2	22.1	38.0	20.6	41.3	15.5	14.5	-1.9
MALE	73.2	18.6	65.8	20.8	62.0	20.7	58.7	16.4	--	-2.2
55-64	100.0	12.0	100.0	13.6	100.0	14.0	100.0	11.6	0.0	-0.4
FEMALE	22.2	9.5	31.2	12.9	36.9	13.6	39.9	10.8	17.7	1.3
MALE	77.8	13.0	68.8	13.9	63.1	14.3	60.1	12.1	--	-0.9
65 AND OLDER	100.0	5.0	100.0	4.7	100.0	4.1	100.0	3.1	0.0	-1.9
FEMALE	17.6	3.1	29.2	4.2	35.9	3.8	38.6	2.8	21.0	-0.3
MALE	82.4	5.7	70.8	4.9	64.1	4.2	61.4	3.3	--	-2.4

SOURCE: CENSUS OF POPULATION 1950, 1960, 1970 AND 1980.

TABLE 2.15

UTAH
UNEMPLOYMENT RATES
BY SEX AND AGE
ANNUAL AVERAGES
1981-1984

AGE	1981	1982	1983	1984
16 AND OLDER	6.7	7.8	9.2	6.5
FEMALE	7.9	7.6	8.9	7.1
MALE	5.8	7.9	9.4	6.1
16-19	15.4	19.0	18.5	16.6
FEMALE	15.4	18.2	16.2	19.1
MALE	15.4	19.8	20.8	14.0
20 AND OLDER	5.6	6.5	8.3	5.5
FEMALE	6.8	6.3	8.1	5.5
MALE	4.8	6.6	8.4	5.4
20-24	9.8	9.7	12.7	7.4
FEMALE		8.8	9.8	6.7
MALE		10.3	15.1	8.0
25-34	5.6	7.0	9.3	6.4
FEMALE		6.2	9.3	7.5
MALE		7.5	9.2	5.8
35-44	4.5	5.5	6.4	5.3
FEMALE		6.2	7.2	5.6
MALE		5.0	5.9	5.1
45-54	4.3	5.1	6.5	3.0
FEMALE		5.1	6.9	2.5
MALE		5.1	6.3	3.3
55-64	3.0	4.8	5.0	3.6
FEMALE		4.0	5.9	2.5
MALE		5.3	4.5	4.2
65 AND OLDER	0.9	2.9	0.9	1.6
FEMALE		1.7	0.7	1.2
MALE		3.6	1.0	1.8

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEYS 1981, 1982, 1983, AND 1984.

TABLE 2.16

UTAH
EMPLOYED PERSONS BY HOURS WORKED
BY SEX
1982-1984

	HOURS AT WORK PER WEEK PERCENT DISTRIBUTION							AVERAGE HOURS	
	1-14	15-29	30-34	35-39	40	41-48	49+	TOTAL AT WORK	ON FULL-TIME SCHEDULE
UTAH									
1982	8.0	14.4	8.4	3.8	38.5	9.4	17.4	37.4	46.1
FEMALE	13.2	20.4	11.9	5.5	36.2	6.0	6.4	31.8	42.1
MALE	4.6	10.0	6.0	2.9	39.8	11.7	24.9	41.2	46.5
1983	7.8	14.3	8.5	4.2	37.4	9.8	18.1	47.7	45.3
FEMALE	13.0	22.0	11.4	5.7	35.4	6.5	6.5	31.8	42.1
MALE	4.2	9.3	6.5	3.1	38.9	12.1	25.9	41.8	46.8
1984	6.8	14.2	7.7	4.5	37.5	9.8	19.5	38.3	45.5
FEMALE	11.2	21.7	10.5	7.1	35.2	7.1	7.1	32.7	42.5
MALE	4.0	9.0	5.8	2.6	39.1	11.6	28.0	42.3	47.0

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEYS FOR 1982, 1983 AND 1984.

TABLE 2.17

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
FULL-TIME OR PART-TIME STATUS OF CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX
1982-1984

	FULL-TIME LABOR FORCE						PART-TIME LABOR FORCE			
					UNEMPLOYED				UNEMPLOYED	
	TOTAL	TOTAL	EMPLOYED ON FULL-TIME SCHEDULES	PART-TIME FOR ECONOMIC REASONS	TOTAL	RATE	TOTAL	EMPLOYED	TOTAL	RATE
UTAH										
1982	**533**	**491**	**458**	**33**	**42**	**7.9**	**134**	**125**	**10**	**7.4**
FEMALE	182	167	152	15	15	8.4	90	85	5	6.1
MALE	351	324	307	17	27	7.6	44	40	4	10.1
1983	**565**	**514**	**469**	**45**	**51**	**9.0**	**125**	**113**	**13**	**10.2**
FEMALE	198	181	156	25	17	8.7	87	79	8	9.5
MALE	368	334	313	21	34	9.1	38	34	4	11.6
1984	**587**	**554**	**518**	**36**	**34**	**5.8**	**133**	**120**	**13**	**9.7**
FEMALE	213	200	177	22	14	6.4	91	83	8	8.8
MALE	374	354	340	14	20	5.4	42	38	5	11.6
UNITED STATES										
1982	**94,293**	**85,287**	**79,118**	**6,169**	**9,006**	**9.6**	**15,912**	**14,239**	**1,672**	**10.5**
FEMALE	36,879	33,358	30,218	3,140	3,521	9.5	10,876	9,898	978	9.0
MALE	57,414	51,929	48,899	3,030	5,485	9.6	5,036	4,342	694	13.8
1983	**95,736**	**86,661**	**80,395**	**6,266**	**9,075**	**9.5**	**15,814**	**14,172**	**1,642**	**10.4**
FEMALE	37,720	34,225	30,925	3,300	3,494	9.3	10,783	9,821	963	8.9
MALE	58,016	52,436	49,470	2,966	5,581	9.6	5,031	4,352	679	13.5
1984	**97,632**	**90,574**	**84,831**	**5,743**	**7,057**	**7.2**	**15,912**	**14,431**	**1,481**	**9.3**
FEMALE	38,795	35,879	32,788	3,091	2,916	7.5	10,914	10,035	879	8.1
MALE	58,837	54,695	52,043	2,652	4,142	7.0	4,998	4,396	602	12.1

SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEYS FOR 1982, 1983 AND (UTAH), EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS, JANUARY 1983, 1984 AND 1985 (U.S.)

TABLE 2.18

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
REASON FOR LABOR FORCE NONPARTICIPATION
BY SEX & AGE
1984
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

AGE	TOTAL	KEEPING HOUSE		GOING TO SCHOOL		UNABLE TO WORK		OTHER	
		NUMBER	% OF TOTAL	NUMBER	% OF TOTAL	NUMBER	% OF TOTAL	NUMBER	% OF TOTAL
UTAH									
TOTAL	354	190	54	40	11	10	3	114	32
FEMALE	255	188	74	19	7	4	2	44	17
MALE	100	3	3	21	21	6	6	70	70
AGE 16-24	66	19	29	34	52	1	2	13	20
FEMALE	42	19	45	17	40	0	-	6	14
MALE	25	a	-	17	68	1	4	7	28
AGE 25-34	59	48	81	5	8	a	-	6	10
FEMALE	53	47	89	1	2	0	-	4	8
MALE	6	1	17	3	50	a	-	1	17
AGE 35-54	56	44	79	1	2	2	4	8	14
FEMALE	50	44	88	1	2	1	2	4	8
MALE	6	a	-	1	17	2	33	3	50
AGE 55+	173	80	46	a	-	7	4	87	50
FEMALE	110	78	71	a	-	3	3	30	27
MALE	63	2	3	a	-	3	5	58	92
UNITED STATES									
TOTAL	62,839	31,494	50	7,856	13	2,757	4	20,733	33
FEMALE	43,068	31,022	72	3,867	9	1,164	3	7,017	16
MALE	19,771	473	2	3,989	20	1,593	8	13,716	69
AGE 16-24	11,433	2,420	21	6,880	60	83	1	2,050	18
FEMALE	6,667	2,378	36	3,321	50	31	1	937	14
MALE	4,766	42	1	3,558	75	53	1	1,113	23
AGE 25-34	7,276	5,364	74	683	9	217	3	1,012	14
FEMALE	6,169	5,307	86	344	6	66	1	452	7
MALE	1,107	57	5	338	31	152	14	560	54
AGE 35-54	10,538	7,864	75	252	2	664	6	1,758	17
FEMALE	8,908	7,783	87	170	2	204	2	751	8
MALE	1,629	81	5	82	5	460	28	1,007	62
AGE 55+	33,592	15,846	47	41	b	1,792	5	15,913	47
FEMALE	21,325	15,553	73	30	b	863	4	4,878	23
MALE	12,268	293	2	11	b	929	8	11,036	90

a=FIGURES TOTAL LESS THAN 1,000.
b=LESS THAN 1%.
SOURCE: UTAH DATA CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY 1984, U.S. DATA - EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS, 1984 (BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS).

TABLE 2.19

UNITED STATES
LABOR FORCE STATUS OF WOMEN MAINTAINING FAMILIES
BY PRESENCE AND AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD AND MARITAL STATUS
MARCH 1983
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

LABOR FORCE STATUS	TOTAL	WITH NO OWN CHILDREN 1/ UNDER AGE 18	WITH CHILDREN 1/ UNDER AGE 18		
			TOTAL	CHILDREN AGE 6 TO 17 ONLY	CHILDREN UNDER AGE 6
WOMEN MAINTAINING FAMILIES	9,828	3,788	6,040	3,746	2,294
IN LABOR FORCE	5,861	1,815	4,047	2,780	1,266
PARTICIPATION RATE	59.6	47.9	67.0	74.2	55.2
UNEMPLOYED	831	131	700	406	294
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE	14.2	7.2	17.3	14.6	23.2
NOT IN LABOR FORCE	3,996	1,973	1,993	966	1,028
NEVER-MARRIED	1,823	574	1,248	446	802
IN LABOR FORCE	1,018	372	646	292	353
PARTICIPATION RATE	55.8	64.8	51.8	65.5	44.0
UNEMPLOYED	213	33	180	66	115
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE	20.9	8.9	27.9	22.6	32.6
NOT IN LABOR FORCE	805	202	603	154	449
SEPARATED	1,831	365	1,466	828	637
IN LABOR FORCE	1,141	228	913	573	339
PARTICIPATION RATE	62.3	62.5	62.3	69.2	53.2
UNEMPLOYED	217	37	180	100	80
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE	19.0	16.2	19.7	17.5	23.6
NOT IN LABOR FORCE	690	137	553	255	298
WIDOWED	2,559	2,025	534	463	71
IN LABOR FORCE	877	587	290	253	37
PARTICIPATION RATE	34.3	29.0	54.3	54.6	2/
UNEMPLOYED	77	32	44	32	12
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE	8.8	5.5	15.2	12.6	2/
NOT IN LABOR FORCE	1,682	1,438	244	210	34
DIVORCED	3,615	824	2,792	2,008	784
IN LABOR FORCE	2,826	628	2,198	1,661	537
PARTICIPATION RATE	78.2	76.2	78.7	82.7	58.5
UNEMPLOYED	324	29	295	208	87
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE	11.5	4.6	13.4	12.5	16.2
NOT IN LABOR FORCE	790	196	594	347	246

1/ CHILDREN ARE DEFINED AS "OWN" CHILDREN OF THE FAMILY. INCLUDED ARE NEVER-MARRIED DAUGHTERS, SONS, STEPCHILDREN, AND ADOPTED CHILDREN. EXCLUDED ARE OTHER RELATED CHILDREN SUCH AS GRANDCHILDREN, NIECES, NEPHEWS, COUSINS, AND UNRELATED CHILDREN.

2/ RATE NOT SHOWN WHERE BASE IS LESS THAN 75,000.

NOTE: BECAUSE OF ROUNDING, SUMS OF INDIVIDUAL ITEMS MAY NOT EQUAL TOTALS.

SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

TABLE 2.20

UTAH
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES
BY SEX AND COUNTY
1980

COUNTY	CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE		FEMALE SHARE OF LABOR FORCE
	MALE	FEMALE	
BEAVER	73.0	33.2	32.1
BOX ELDER	81.9	45.9	36.9
CACHE	74.2	47.4	39.9
CARBON	78.4	42.3	35.7
DAGGETT	83.7	34.1	28.6
DAVIS	75.5	51.9	40.4
DUCHESNE	79.9	39.4	32.3
EMERY	83.1	33.6	27.9
GARFIELD	69.8	40.3	36.2
GRAND	84.9	47.9	35.5
IRON	78.5	48.1	38.5
JUAB	75.0	42.0	37.1
KANE	72.4	40.1	36.6
MILLARD	76.5	43.0	36.6
MORGAN	77.0	43.5	35.2
PIUTE	68.2	29.4	30.1
RICH	83.8	37.2	27.9
SALT LAKE	83.8	54.2	40.7
SAN JUAN	73.8	40.5	36.8
SANPETE	71.7	36.8	36.1
SEVIER	76.7	43.8	37.2
SUMMIT	86.2	53.7	37.2
TOOELE	77.1	51.1	39.6
UINTAH	83.0	38.8	31.6
UTAH	74.2	44.0	39.2
WASATCH	81.7	44.2	35.4
WASHINGTON	68.4	38.5	37.6
WAYNE	72.5	29.4	28.5
WEBER	76.2	51.4	41.9
STATE TOTAL	79.3	49.8	39.8

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 3.1

UTAH
EMPLOYED PERSONS 16 YEARS AND OLDER
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX
1970 AND 1980

OCCUPATION	1970 MALE	1970 FEMALE	1970 TOTAL	1980 MALE	1980 FEMALE	1980 TOTAL	1970 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL	1980 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL
TOTAL	241,574	136,988	378,562	352,730	233,191	585,921	36.2	39.8
EXECUTIVE, ADMINISTRATIVE & MANAGERIAL	27,603	6,616	34,219	48,448	17,983	66,431	19.3	27.1
FINANCIAL MANAGERS	944	237	1,181	1,675	674	2,349	20.1	28.7
ACCOUNTANTS & AUDITORS	3,347	1,882	5,229	4,635	3,105	7,740	36.0	40.1
PERSONNEL, TRAINING & LABOR SPECIALISTS	811	368	1,179	1,620	1,019	2,639	31.2	38.6
BUYERS, WHOLESALE & RETAIL TRADE EXCEPT FARM	487	147	634	610	393	1,003	23.2	39.2
OTHER MANAGEMENT RELATED OCCUPATIONS	22,014	3,982	25,996	39,908	12,792	52,700	15.3	24.3
PROFESSIONAL SPECIALTY OCCUPATIONS	29,066	18,683	47,749	41,798	31,266	73,064	39.1	42.8
ENGINEERS, ARCHITECTS & SURVEYORS	6,526	261	6,787	9,100	324	9,424	3.8	3.4
MATHEMATICAL & COMPUTER SCIENTISTS	968	172	1,140	1,412	218	1,630	15.1	13.4
NATURAL SCIENTISTS	740	116	856	1,138	256	1,394	13.6	18.4
PHYSICIANS, DENTISTS & KINDRED	2,337	98	2,435	3,643	320	3,963	4.0	8.1
REGISTERED NURSES, THERAPISTS & KINDRED	851	3,620	4,471	1,571	6,847	8,418	81.0	81.3
ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS	5,622	8,926	14,548	7,570	12,930	20,500	61.4	63.1
POST SECONDARY TEACHERS	4,055	1,259	5,314	4,272	1,564	5,836	23.7	26.8
COUNSELORS, EDUCATIONAL & VOCATIONAL	556	305	861	839	615	1,454	35.4	42.3
SOCIAL SCIENTISTS & URBAN PLANNERS	487	111	598	846	442	1,288	18.6	34.3
SOCIAL, RECREATION & RELIGIOUS WORKERS	1,214	531	1,745	2,129	1,254	3,383	30.4	37.1
LAWYERS & JUDGES	1,187	41	1,228	2,179	262	2,441	3.3	10.7
WRITERS, ARTISTS, ENTERTAINERS & ATHLETES	2,895	1,439	4,334	4,349	3,061	7,410	33.2	41.3
OTHER PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS	1,628	1,804	3,432	2,750	3,173	5,923	52.6	53.6
TECHNICIANS & RELATED SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS	7,453	2,446	9,899	13,706	6,927	20,633	24.7	33.6
HEALTH TECHNOLOGISTS & TECHNICIANS	512	869	1,381	1,102	1,961	3,063	62.9	64.0
LICENSED PRACTICAL NURSES	36	946	982	80	2,124	2,204	96.3	96.4
ENGINEERING, SCIENCE & OTHER TECHNICIANS	6,905	631	7,536	12,524	2,842	15,366	8.4	18.5

TABLE 3.1

UTAH
EMPLOYED PERSONS 16 YEARS AND OLDER
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX
1970 AND 1980
(CONTINUED)

OCCUPATION	1970 MALE	1970 FEMALE	1970 TOTAL	1980 MALE	1980 FEMALE	1980 TOTAL	1970 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL	1980 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL
SALES OCCUPATIONS	**23,477**	**15,591**	**39,068**	**32,047**	**28,451**	**60,498**	**39.9**	**47.0**
SUPERVISORS, SELF-EMPLOYED	2,161	465	2,626	1,642	499	2,141	17.7	23.3
SUPERVISORS, OTHER	3,590	415	4,005	4,826	1,772	6,598	10.4	26.9
SALES REPRESENTATIVES	9,214	1,026	10,240	14,978	4,190	19,168	10.0	21.9
SALES WORKERS	7,520	9,692	17,212	9,026	12,718	21,744	56.3	58.5
CASHIERS	969	3,916	4,885	1,514	9,099	10,613	80.2	85.7
SALES RELATED OCCUPATIONS	23	77	100	61	173	234	77.0	73.9
ADMINISTRATIVE, SUPPORT INCLUDING CLERICAL	**16,829**	**48,021**	**64,850**	**22,011**	**75,346**	**97,357**	**74.0**	**77.4**
SUPERVISORS, ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT	1,500	1,232	2,732	3,458	2,743	6,201	45.1	44.2
COMPUTER EQUIPMENT OPERATORS	595	477	1,072	958	1,748	2,706	44.5	64.6
SECRETARIES, STENOGRAPHERS & TYPISTS	509	19,061	19,570	365	28,592	28,957	97.4	98.7
BOOKKEEPERS	1,371	5,572	6,943	1,335	8,679	10,014	80.3	86.7
FINANCIAL RECORDS PROCESSING	337	1,268	1,605	506	1,800	2,306	79.0	78.1
MAIL & MESSAGE DISTRIBUTING CLERKS	2,252	735	2,987	2,617	1,331	3,948	24.6	33.7
MATERIAL RECORDING, SCHEDULING, DISTRIBUTING	5,067	2,173	7,240	6,101	4,294	10,395	30.0	41.3
OTHER ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OCCUPATIONS	5,198	17,503	22,701	6,671	26,159	32,830	77.1	79.7
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	**19,423**	**28,792**	**48,215**	**29,258**	**41,936**	**71,194**	**59.7**	**58.9**
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS	139	2,544	2,683	47	1,845	1,892	94.8	97.5
POLICE AND FIREFIGHTERS	1,784	34	1,818	2,613	124	2,737	1.9	4.5
GUARDS	1,305	75	1,380	2,514	625	3,139	5.4	19.9
OTHER PROTECTIVE SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	909	18	927	1,306	91	1,397	1.9	6.5
FOOD SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	4,852	13,671	18,523	8,105	18,892	26,997	73.8	70.0
HEALTH SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	606	4,126	4,732	1,025	6,003	7,028	87.2	85.4
CLEANING AND BUILDING SERVICE	8,002	3,875	11,877	11,408	5,865	17,273	32.6	34.0
PERSONAL SERVICE	1,826	4,449	6,275	2,240	8,491	10,731	70.9	79.1

TABLE 3.1

UTAH
EMPLOYED PERSONS 16 YEARS AND OLDER
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX
1970 AND 1980
(CONTINUED)

OCCUPATION	1970 MALE	1970 FEMALE	1970 TOTAL	1980 MALE	1980 FEMALE	1980 TOTAL	1970 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL	1980 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL
FARMING, FORESTRY & FISHING	**13,202**	**660**	**13,862**	**11,708**	**1,235**	**12,943**	**4.8**	**9.5**
FARM OPERATORS	6,703	199	6,902	5,470	223	5,693	2.9	3.9
OTHER FARMING, FORESTRY & FISHING	6,499	461	6,960	6,238	1,012	7,250	6.6	14.0
PRECISION, PRODUCTION, CRAFT & REPAIR	**52,045**	**3,373**	**55,418**	**82,302**	**6,875**	**89,177**	**6.1**	**12.4**
AUTO MECHANICS & REPAIRERS	4,547	62	4,609	8,123	186	8,309	1.4	2.2
OTHER MECHANICS & REPAIRERS	13,628	343	13,971	17,775	922	18,697	2.5	4.9
CARPENTERS	3,940	87	4,027	8,266	170	8,436	2.2	2.0
OTHER CONSTRUCTION TRADES	12,108	194	12,302	24,510	431	24,941	1.6	1.7
MINING & DRILLING OCCUPATIONS	2,321	33	2,354	5,337	87	5,424	1.4	1.6
SUPERVISORS, PRECISION PRODUCTION WORKERS	6,154	603	6,757	7,326	1,673	8,999	8.9	18.6
PRECISION METAL PRODUCTION OCCUPATIONS	3,884	143	4,027	4,534	294	4,828	3.6	6.1
PLANT & SYSTEM OPERATORS	1,234	2	1,236	1,621	49	1,670	0.2	2.9
OTHER PRECISION PRODUCTION OPERATORS	4,229	1,906	6,135	4,810	3,063	7,873	31.1	38.9
MACHINE OPERATORS, ASSEMBLERS & INSPECTORS	**14,907**	**9,341**	**24,248**	**23,845**	**16,790**	**40,635**	**38.5**	**41.3**
MACHINE OPERATORS & TENDERS, EXCLUDING PREC.	10,447	7,096	17,543	13,792	9,388	23,180	40.4	40.5
FABRICATORS, ASSEMBLERS AND HANDWORKING	3,582	1,430	5,012	8,223	5,506	13,729	28.5	40.1
PROD. INSPECT., TESTERS, SAMPLERS, WEIGHERS	878	815	1,693	1,830	1,896	3,726	48.1	50.9
TRANSPORTATION & MATERIAL MOVING OPERATORS	**19,578**	**305**	**19,883**	**27,629**	**1,659**	**29,288**	**1.5**	**5.7**
MOTOR VEHICLE OPERATORS	11,588	209	11,797	17,669	1,238	18,907	1.8	6.5
TRANSPORTATION, EXCEPT MOTOR VEHICLES	2,692	26	2,718	2,654	31	2,685	1.0	1.2
MATERIAL MOVING EQUIPMENT OPERATORS	5,298	70	5,368	7,306	390	7,696	1.3	5.1

TABLE 3.1

UTAH
EMPLOYED PERSONS 16 YEARS AND OLDER
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX
1970 AND 1980
(CONTINUED)

OCCUPATION	1970			1980			1970 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL	1980 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL		
HANDLERS, EQUIPMENT CLEANERS, HELPERS, LABORERS	17,991	3,160	21,151	19,978	4,723	24,701	14.9	19.1
HELPERS	1,256	152	1,408	1,743	216	1,959	10.8	11.0
CONSTRUCTION LABORERS	2,146	32	2,178	4,011	194	4,205	1.5	4.6
FREIGHT, STOCK AND MATERIAL HANDLERS	4,216	421	4,637	5,066	1,038	6,104	9.1	17.0
VEHICLE WASHERS & EQUIPMENT CLEANERS	514	46	560	557	64	621	8.2	10.3
MISC. MANUAL OCCUPATIONS	9,859	2,509	12,368	8,601	3,211	11,812	20.3	27.2

SOURCE: 1970 AND 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 3.2

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
EMPLOYED CIVILIANS
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX
1983 & 1984
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

	UNITED STATES						UTAH					
	1983			1984			1983			1984		
	MALE	FEMALE	% FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	% FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	% FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	% FEMALE
TOTAL	56,787	44,047	44	59,091	45,915	44	368	259	41	414	302	42
MANAGERIAL & PROFESSIONAL	13,933	9,659	41	14,529	10,329	42	86	54	39	99	67	40
EXECUTIVES & ADMINISTRATORS	7,282	3,490	32	7,683	3,889	34	46	19	29	53	25	32
PROFESSIONALS	6,651	6,169	48	6,846	6,440	48	40	34	46	46	43	48
TECHNICAL, SALES & ADMINISTRATIVE	11,078	20,187	65	11,556	20,920	64	77	126	62	88	142	61
TECHNICAL	1,582	1,471	48	1,646	1,527	48	12	5	29	14	6	30
SALES	6,201	5,617	48	6,550	6,032	48	46	37	45	55	43	45
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT	3,295	13,100	80	3,361	13,361	80	19	84	82	22	93	81
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	5,530	8,326	60	5,545	8,607	61	37	51	58	35	53	60
PRECISION PRODUCTION, CRAFTS & REPAIRS	11,328	1,000	8	11,945	1,112	9	84	7	8	91	9	9
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS & LABORERS	11,809	4,282	27	12,479	4,385	26	66	19	22	82	27	25
MACHINE OPERATORS	4,484	3,259	42	4,702	3,282	41	20	12	38	25	18	42
TRANSPORTATION & MATERIAL MOVING	3,875	326	8	4,098	369	8	25	3	11	30	3	9
HANDLERS, EQUIPMENT CLEANERS & LABORERS	3,450	697	17	3,679	734	17	21	4	16	27	6	18
FARMING, FORESTRY & FISHING	3,108	592	16	3,037	562	16	18	2	10	18	4	17

NOTE: DETAIL MAY NOT ADD TO TOTAL DUE TO ROUNDING.
a=DATA EQUAL TO LESS THAN 1,000.
SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY, 1981-1984 (UTAH DATA); EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS, JANUARY 1985 (UNITED STATES).

TABLE 3.3

UTAH
FIFTEEN OCCUPATIONS
WHERE WOMEN HAVE INCREASED
THEIR EMPLOYMENT SHARE
1970 AND 1980

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE	WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED 1970	1980	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1970-1980
INSURANCE ADJUSTERS, EXAMINERS & INVESTIGATORS	26.1	66.3	40.2
HOTEL CLERKS	47.4	82.2	34.8
COMPUTER OPERATORS	36.6	65.2	28.6
SCIENCE TECHNICIANS	8.3	33.2	24.9
PUBLIC RELATIONS SPECIALISTS	20.7	45.0	24.3
BUS DRIVERS	3.7	26.4	22.7
BARTENDERS	32.9	54.2	21.3
BAKERS	23.9	44.7	20.8
WAITERS & WAITRESSES' ASSISTANTS	29.4	49.8	20.4
PRODUCTION COORDINATORS	19.2	39.2	20.0
STOCK HANDLERS & BAGGERS	3.4	23.0	19.6
TRANSPORTATION, TICKET & RESERVATION AGENTS	32.4	51.8	19.4
SUPERVISORS, FOOD PREPARATION & SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	51.2	70.2	19.0
THERAPISTS	45.8	64.1	18.3
INVESTIGATORS & ADJUSTERS, EXCEPT INSURANCE	37.3	55.1	17.8

SELECTION CRITERIA: The actual number of males and females in 1970 and 1980 occupational categories had to equal 100.

SOURCE: 1970 and 1980 Census of the Population.

TABLE 3.4

UTAH
CHANGE IN FEMALE SHARE OF EMPLOYMENT
IN FEMALE DOMINATED OCCUPATIONS
1970 AND 1980

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE	1970 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	1980 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1970 - 1980
REGISTERED NURSES	98.0	95.5	- 2.5
DIETITIONS	100.0	84.5	-15.5
TEACHERS, PRE- & KINDERGARTEN	98.1	95.3	- 2.8
TEACHERS, SPECIAL EDUCATION	100.0	63.0	-37.0
LICENSED PRACTICAL NURSES	96.3	96.4	0.1
SECRETARIES	98.3	99.0	0.7
STENOGRAPHERS	95.4	91.0	- 4.4
TYPISTS	94.8	97.5	2.7
RECEPTIONISTS	98.3	96.5	- 1.8
PERSONNEL CLERKS	91.1	85.1	- 6.0
BILLING, POSTING, & CALCULATING MACHINE OPERATORS	91.8	86.9	- 4.9
TELEPHONE OPERATORS	95.1	85.7	- 9.4
DATA ENTRY KEYERS	95.7	92.3	- 3.4
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD OCCUPATIONS	94.8	97.5	2.7
WAITERS & WAITRESSES	96.6	90.9	- 5.7
DENTAL ASSISTANTS	98.3	96.6	- 1.7
MAIDS/HOUSEMEN	93.5	82.9	-10.6
HAIRDRESSERS/COSMETOLOGISTS	92.0	88.6	- 3.4
CHILDCARE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	92.8	93.8	1.0
DRESSMAKERS	97.0	96.8	- 0.2

NOTE: Figures should be used with caution due to small sample size.

SOURCE: 1970 and 1980 Census of the Population

TABLE 3.5

UTAH
CHANGE IN FEMALE SHARE OF EMPLOYMENT
IN MALE DOMINATED OCCUPATIONS
1970 AND 1980

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE	1970 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	1980 WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE 1970 - 1980
PURCHASING MANAGERS	5.7	20.6	14.9
MANAGEMENT ANALYSTS	15.3	27.9	12.6
ARCHITECTS	0.0	7.4	7.4
ENGINEERS	1.6	3.1	1.5
COMPUTER SYSTEM ANALYSTS & SCIENTISTS	14.1	11.2	2.9
STATISTICIANS	25.7	27.0	1.3
GEOLOGISTS & GEODISTS	6.6	9.9	3.3
PHYSICIANS	5.7	10.2	4.5
DENTISTS	0.1	4.2	4.1
ECONOMISTS	7.3	37.9	30.6
PSYCHOLOGISTS	10.4	28.2	17.8
LAWYERS & JUDGES	3.3	10.2	6.9
ANNOUNCERS	5.0	16.8	11.8
AIRPLANE PILOTS & NAVIGATORS	0.0	1.6	1.6
INSURANCE SALES OCCUPATIONS	7.6	13.6	6.0
SECURITIES & FINANCE SERVICES SALES OCCUPATIONS	7.4	11.8	4.4
MAIL CARRIERS, POSTAL SERVICE	7.4	13.5	6.1
FIREFIGHTERS	0.9	4.4	3.5
POLICE & DETECTIVE, PUBLIC SERVICE	2.6	5.2	2.6
GUARDS	5.4	19.9	14.5
AUTO MECHANICS	1.6	2.5	0.9
AIRCRAFT MECHANICS	3.6	1.9	- 1.7
TELEPHONE INSTALLERS/REPAIRERS	3.2	9.9	6.7
CONSTRUCTION TRADES	1.7	1.8	0.1
EXTRACTIVE OCCUPATIONS	1.4	1.6	0.2
PRECISION METALWORKING OCCUPATIONS	3.6	6.1	2.5
WELDERS & CUTTERS	2.1	3.0	0.9
TRUCK DRIVERS, HEAVY	1.1	2.7	1.6
TAXICAB DRIVERS & CHAUFFERS	9.9	19.8	9.9

NOTE: Figures should be used with caution due to small of samples.

SOURCE: 1970 and 1980 Census of the Population

TABLE 3.6

UNITED STATES AND UTAH
SEGREGATION OF WORKING WOMEN
INTO FEMALE DOMINATED OCCUPATIONS
1900 - 1980

PERCENTAGE OF OCCUPATION FEMALE	CUMMULATIVE PERCENT OF EMPLOYED WOMEN IN THESE OCCUPATIONS					
	UNITED STATES					UTAH
	1900	1920	1940	1960	1980	1980
90 OR MORE	38	31	34	28	32	26
80 OR MORE	42	42	40	42	49	51
70 OR MORE	54	43	49	50	62	58
60 OR MORE	56	49	61	56	65	68
50 OR MORE	60	60	65	73	76	76

SOURCE: U.S. Data, -1900-1960, Valerie Kincaid Oppenheimer, The Female Labor Force in the United States, 1970, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor. Utah Data, 1980 Census.

TABLE 3.7

UTAH
PERSONS IN THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
BY SEX
1984 ANNUAL AVERAGES
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

INDUSTRY	PERSONS IN EXPERIENCED LABOR FORCE			
	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL
TOTAL, NONAGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES	689	397	292	42
MINING	13	11	2	15
CONSTRUCTION	51	48	4	8
MANUFACTURING	102	68	34	33
DURABLE	68	51	18	26
NONDURABLE	34	18	16	47
TRANS., COMM., PUB. UTIL.	35	27	9	26
TRADE	151	75	76	50
WHOLESALE	31	21	10	32
RETAIL	119	54	66	55
FINANCIAL INDUSTRIES	33	15	18	55
SERVICE	119	54	65	55
MEDICAL	34	8	26	76
EDUCATION	14	8	6	43
OTHER	71	39	32	45
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	7	1	6	86
GOVERNMENT	129	66	62	48
FEDERAL	38	23	15	39
STATE & LOCAL	90	43	48	53
SELF-EMPLOYED	55	33	22	40
UNPAID FAMILY	2	a	2	99

a=LESS THAN 1,000.
SOURCE: CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY 1984.

TABLE 4.1

UNITED STATES
MEDIAN INCOME BY SEX
1955-1982

	MEDIAN INCOME		WOMEN'S INCOME AS A % OF MEN'S
	MALE	FEMALE	
1955	$4,241	$2,735	64.5
1956	4,467	2,829	63.3
1957	4,722	3,007	63.7
1958	4,949	3,101	62.7
1959	5,241	3,206	61.2
1960	5,434	3,296	60.7
1961	5,663	3,341	59.0
1962	5,826	3,457	59.3
1963	6,070	3,556	58.6
1964	6,284	3,710	59.0
1965	6,598	3,816	57.8
1966	6,955	4,026	57.9
1967	7,289	4,198	57.6
1968	7,814	4,568	58.5
1969	8,668	5,077	58.6
1970	9,184	5,440	59.2
1971	9,631	5,701	59.2
1972	10,538	6,053	57.4
1973	11,468	6,488	56.6
1974	12,162	7,174	59.0
1975	12,934	7,719	59.7
1976	13,859	8,312	60.0
1977	15,070	8,814	58.5
1978	16,062	9,641	60.0
1979	17,479	10,531	60.2
1980	19,173	11,591	60.5
1981	20,692	12,457	60.2
1982	21,655	13,663	63.1

SOURCE: MONEY INCOME OF HOUSEHOLDS, FAMILIES AN PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES: 1982, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE CURRENT POPULATION REPORTS, SERIES P-60, NO. 142.

TABLE 4.2

UNITED STATES
MEDIAN USUAL WEEKLY EARNINGS
OF FULL-TIME WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS
BY AGE AND SEX
1980-1984

AGE	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
16 YEARS AND OLDER	258	283	303	309	326
MALE	309	345	363	379	400
FEMALE	201	217	240	252	259
FEMALE/MALE WAGE RATIO	65.0	62.9	66.1	66.5	64.8
16 TO 24 YEARS					
MALE	206	218	226	223	232
FEMALE	166	180	190	201	203
FEMALE/MALE WAGE RATIO	80.6	82.6	84.1	90.1	87.5
25 YEARS AND OLDER					
MALE	343	369	401	405	421
FEMALE	208	232	253	263	282
FEMALE/MALE WAGE RATIO	60.6	62.9	63.1	64.9	67.0

SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS, JANUARY 1985.

TABLE 4.3

UNITED STATES
MEDIAN ANNUAL EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, 14 YEARS AND OVER, BY SEX

YEAR	ANNUAL EARNINGS		WOMEN'S EARNINGS AS PERCENT OF MEN'S
	WOMEN	MEN	
1960	$ 3,293	$ 5,417	60.8
1961	3,351	5,644	59.4
1962	3,446	5,794	59.5
1963	3,561	5,978	59.6
1964	3,690	6,195	59.6
1965	3,823	6,375	60.0
1966	3,973	6,848	58.0
1967	4,150	7,182	57.8
1968	4,457	7,664	58.2
1969	4,977	8,227	60.5
1970	5,323	8,966	59.4
1971	5,593	9,399	59.5
1972	5,903	10,202	57.9
1973	6,335	11,186	56.6
1974	6,970	11,889	58.6
1975	7,504	12,758	58.8
1976	8,099	13,455	60.2
1977	8,618	14,626	58.9
1978	9,350	15,730	59.4
1979	10,151	17,014	59.7
1980	11,197	18,612	60.2
1981	12,001	20,260	59.2

NOTE: DATA FOR 1960 TO 1966 ARE FOR WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS ONLY AND EXCLUDE SELF-EMPLOYED WORKERS.
DATA FOR 1979 TO 1981 ARE FOR PERSONS 15 AND OLDER.
SOURCE: U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

TABLE 4.4

UTAH & UNITED STATES
1979 INCOME OF PERSONS BY HOUSEHOLD TYPE AND SEX

	TOTAL (INCLUDES PEOPLE WITHOUT INCOME)		MEDIAN INCOME		
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	FEMALE/MALE INCOME RATIO
UTAH					
15 YEARS & OLDER	488,000	511,000	$12,897	$4,391	34.0
IN HOUSEHOLD	474,000	501,000	13,235	4,475	33.8
IN FAMILY HOUSEHOLD	418,000	429,000	13,939	4,151	29.8
HOUSEHOLDER	314,000	40,000	16,387	7,464	45.5
IN MARRIED-COUPLE	307,000	6,000	16,456	6,461	39.3
IN OTHER FAMILY	8,000	33,000	13,112	7,605	58.0
SPOUSE	7,000	306,000	13,234	4,338	32.8
OTHER RELATIVE	93,000	79,000	3,323	2,523	75.9
NONRELATIVE	5,000	4,000	6,537	4,184	64.0
IN NONFAMILY HOUSEHOLD	55,000	72,000	9,053	5,629	62.2
HOUSEHOLDER	41,000	54,000	10,566	6,262	59.3
NONRELATIVES	14,000	18,000	5,833	3,771	64.6
UNITED STATES					
15 YEARS & OLDER	83,825,000	91,483,000	12,192	5,263	43.2
IN HOUSEHOLD	80,739,000	88,934,000	12,558	5,423	43.2
INFAMILY HOUSEHOLD	69,958,000	74,648,000	12,938	5,124	39.6
HOUSEHOLDER	49,224,000	9,966,000	15,725	6,805	43.3
IN MARRIED-COUPLE	47,229,000	1,761,000	15,855	7,240	45.7
IN OTHER FAMILY	1,995,000	8,205,000	11,825	6,735	57.0
SPOUSE	1,792,000	47,103,000	12,840	5,560	43.3
OTHER RELATIVE	17,993,000	16,769,000	4,081	3,196	78.3
NONRELATIVE	949,000	809,000	7,449	4,763	63.9
IN NONFAMILY HOUSEHOLD	10,780,000	14,287,000	10,565	6,548	62.0
HOUSEHOLDER	8,941,000	12,336,000	11,231	6,634	59.1
NONRELATIVES	1,839,000	1,950,000	9,452	6,040	63.9

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.5

UTAH
EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION, EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX
MANAGERIAL & PROFESSIONAL SPECIALTY OCCUPATIONS
1979

OCCUPATION	MEDIAN EARNINGS		FEMALE TO MALE RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS % OF TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE		
MANAGERIAL & PROFESSIONAL	$ 21,273	$ 12,386	58.2	22.8
EXECUTIVE, ADMINISTRATIVE & MANAGERIAL	21,220	11,883	56.0	21.6
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS	21,166	13,005	61.4	22.2
ADMINISTRATORS, EDUCATION	25,124	11,563	46.0	16.2
MANAGERS, MEDICINE & HEALTH	25,470	13,761	54.0	38.1
OTHER MANAGERS	22,355	12,514	55.6	19.4
MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS, N.E.C.				
SALARIED	22,257	11,342	51.0	18.6
MANUFACTURING	24,413	12,861	52.7	8.8
TRANS., COMM. & PUB. UTIL.	24,070	14,291	59.4	10.1
TRADE	18,413	10,326	56.1	22.9
OTHER	22,897	12,049	52.6	22.4
MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS, N.E.C.				
SELF-EMPLOYED	17,242	7,467	43.3	14.1
CONSTRUCTION	22,555	--	--	--
MANUFACTURING	15,662	9,167	58.5	8.0
TRADE	15,398	7,688	49.9	16.8
OTHER	17,726	6,714	37.9	17.9
MANAGEMENT RELATED	19,215	12,172	63.3	29.7
ACCOUNTANTS & AUDITORS	19,958	12,105	60.7	32.1
BUYERS & PURCHASING AGENTS	17,807	11,908	66.9	29.3
PROFESSIONAL SPECIALTY	21,340	13,054	61.2	24.4
ENGINEERS, ARCHITECTS & SURVEYORS	22,796	15,923	69.8	2.7
ARCHITECTS	20,477	18,443	90.1	4.3
ENGINEERS	23,022	15,108	65.6	2.7
ELECTRIC & ELECTRONIC	23,166	20,606	88.9	3.1
MECHANICAL	23,393	20,053	85.7	1.7
OTHER	22,913	14,364	62.7	2.6
SURVEYORS & MAPPING SCIENTISTS	13,483	--	--	--
MATH & COMPUTER SECIENTISTS	22,338	16,270	72.8	13.8
COMPUTER SCIENTISTS & ANALYSTS	22,342	19,426	86.9	12.3
NATURAL SCIENTISTS	20,915	13,481	64.5	9.9
HEALTH DIAGNOSING	40,601	17,440	43.0	6.4
PHYSICIANS	45,748	18,554	40.6	7.9
DENTISTS	36,481	7,000	19.2	1.0
OTHER	30,050	12,725	42.3	5.6
HEALTH ASSESSMENT & TREATING	20,052	14,056	70.1	72.6
REGISTERED NURSES	16,331	14,315	87.7	94.0
PHARMACISTS	20,962	20,606	98.3	11.7
THERAPISTS	19,270	12,448	64.6	56.1
TEACHERS, LIBRARIANS, COUNSELORS	19,320	12,402	64.2	31.5
POSTSECONDARY TEACHERS	25,061	15,667	62.5	12.8
ELEMENTARY & PRE-KINDERGARTEN	16,942	11,912	70.3	42.8
SECONDARY TEACHERS	18,034	13,309	73.8	35.9
SOCIAL SCIENTISTS & URBAN PLANNERS	19,006	11,851	62.4	23.8
SOCIAL & RECREATION WORKERS	16,427	11,723	71.4	40.8
RELIGIOUS WORKERS	16,638	8,000	48.1	6.6
LAWYERS & JUDGES	27,799	15,845	57.0	7.2
WRITERS, ARTISTS, ENTERTAINERS, ATHLETES	16,516	11,279	68.3	29.3

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.6

UTAH
EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION, EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX
TECHNICAL, SALES, & ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OCCUPTIONS
1979

OCCUPATION	MEDIAN EARNINGS		FEMALE TO MALE RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS % OF TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE		
TECHNICAL, SALES, & ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT	$ 17,480	$ 9,583	54.8	50.2
TECHNICIANS & RELATED SUPPORT	17,684	11,234	63.5	26.2
HEALTH TECHNOLOGISTS & TECHNICIANS	15,629	11,016	70.5	71.7
LISCENSED PRACTICAL NURSES	7,571	10,191	134.6	97.2
ENGINEERING & SCIENCE TECHNICIANS	17,107	11,917	69.7	11.7
ELECTRIC & ELECTRONIC TECHNICIANS	18,160	12,134	66.8	6.7
DRAFTING & SURVEYING TECHNICIANS	15,639	12,286	78.6	11.0
OTHER	19,697	11,277	57.3	19.3
AIRPLANE PILOTS & NAVIGATORS	22,437	--	--	--
COMPUTER PROGRAMMERS	19,840	12,520	63.1	12.3
SALES OCCUPATIONS	17,683	8,563	48.4	24.1
SUPERVISORS & PROPRIETORS	16,638	8,845	53.2	19.9
SELF-EMPLOYED	15,338	5,391	35.1	15.8
SALES REPS, FINANCE & BUSINESS	20,718	10,829	52.3	19.7
SALES REPS, COMMODOTIES	19,997	11,060	55.3	8.5
SALES REPS, RETAIL AND PERSONAL	14,579	7,634	52.4	42.8
CASHIERS	11,456	7,799	68.1	82.7
SALES RELATED	16,528	7,000	42.4	7.9
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT	17,136	9,615	56.1	70.9
SUPERVISORS	21,148	12,333	58.3	40.7
COMPUTER OPERATORS	15,176	10,457	68.9	62.1
SECRETARIES, STENOGRAPHERS & TYPISTS	13,373	9,518	71.2	98.6
SECRETARIES	12,091	9,535	78.9	98.9
RECEPTIONISTS	10,933	8,117	74.2	95.4
FILE CLERKS	15,208	9,437	62.1	72.2
FINANCIAL RECORDS PROCESSING	16,835	9,503	56.4	82.5
BOOKKEEPERS, ACCOUNTING CLERK	16,031	9,550	59.6	85.0
TELEPHONE OPERATORS	10,250	9,510	92.8	84.0
MAIL & MESSAGE DISTRIBUTING	17,322	11,673	67.4	20.6
TRAFFIC, SHIPPING, STOCK CLERKS	13,734	10,154	73.9	40.5
INSURANCE ADJUSTORS, EXAMINERS	20,274	10,255	50.6	59.0
BANK TELLERS	7,441	7,709	103.6	93.9
DATA-ENTRY KEYERS	12,000	9,511	79.3	92.6
OTHER	16,996	9,725	57.2	61.3

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.7

UTAH
EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION, EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX
SERVICE; FARMING, FORESTRY, & FISHING
PRECISION, PRODUCTION, CRAFT & REPAIR OCCUPATIONS
1979

OCCUPATION	MEDIAN EARNINGS		FEMALE TO MALE RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS % OF TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE		
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	$ 12,811	$ 6,968	54.5	39.8
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	6,667	42,000	63.0	86.1
PROTECTIVE SERVICE	16,063	9,784	60.9	5.5
FIREFIGHTING	17,399	5,800	33.3	3.0
POLICE & DETECTIVES, PUB.	16,282	11,625	71.4	3.6
GUARDS	13,719	8,766	63.9	9.8
OTHER	16,650	11,158	67.0	4.6
OTHER	10,968	6,944	63.3	49.8
FOOD PREPARATION & SERVICE	8,684	6,338	73.0	59.3
WAITERS & FOOD COUNTER	7,389	5,745	77.8	86.3
COOKS	8,856	6,938	78.3	49.5
HEALTH SERVICE	8,580	7,379	86.0	84.3
NURSING AIDES, ORDERLIES	8,241	7,316	88.8	83.5
CLEANING & BUILDING SERVICE	11,667	6,935	59.4	22.7
PERSONAL SERVICE	11,677	7,353	63.0	65.9
BARBERS, HAIRDRESSERS COSMETOLOGISTS	11,885	8,422	70.9	61.8
FARMING, FORESTRY, & FISHING	11,307	6,455	57.1	4.8
FARM OPERATORS & MANAGERS	11,740	2,929	24.9	2.9
OTHER	10,108	8,724	86.3	7.4
RELATED AGRICULTURAL	11,557	5,825	50.4	8.2
FORESTRY & FISHING	15,715	12,077	76.9	5.9
PRECISION, PRODUCTION, CRAFT & REPAIR	17,525	10,346	59.0	5.5
MECHANICS & REPAIRERS	17,132	14,127	82.5	3.4
AUTO MECHANICS	15,096	14,629	96.9	1.8
AIRCRAFT MECHANICS	18,331	15,039	82.0	1.6
HEATING, AIR, REFRIG.	16,745	--	--	--
OTHER	18,327	14,026	76.5	4.4
CONSTRUCTION TRADES	17,147	9,931	57.9	1.1
CARPENTERS	15,004	10,182	67.9	0.9
ELECTRICIANS	18,238	7,833	42.9	2.0
PAINTERS, CONSTRUCTION	15,838	15,056	95.1	3.3
PLUMBERS, PIPEFITTERS	19,816	7,842	39.6	2.0
OTHER	18,170	9,545	52.5	0.6
EXTRACTIVE	21,191	15,000	70.8	1.0
PRECISION PRODUCTION	17,665	9,584	54.3	14.4
SUPERVISORS	19,864	11,270	56.7	14.9
MANUFACTURING	20,064	11,341	56.5	16.9
PRECISION METALWORKING	17,511	9,308	53.2	4.1
TOOL & DIE MAKERS	17,071	20,453	119.8	4.0
MACHINISTS	17,728	13,081	73.8	2.4
SHEET METAL WORKERS	16,970	9,000	53.0	0.4
OTHER	18,348	8,778	47.8	15.6
PRECISION TEXTILE APPAREL	11,300	7,000	61.9	44.9
PLANT & SYSTEM OPERATORS	19,221	12,551	65.3	3.0
OTHER	15,064	8,432	56.0	23.1

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.8

UTAH
EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION, EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE
YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS & LABORERS
1979

OCCUPATION	MEDIAN EARNINGS		FEMALE TO MALE RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS % OF TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE		
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS, & LABORERS	$ 16,291	$ 8,187	50.3	18.8
MACHINE OPERATORS, ASSEMBLERS	15,762	7,924	50.3	32.7
OPERATORS & TENDERS	15,687	7,733	49.3	30.7
METAL & PLASTIC WORKING	17,383	9,053	52.1	10.8
PRINTING	15,205	9,395	61.8	23.5
TEXTILE, APPAREL, FURNISHINGS	12,360	7,090	57.4	85.1
TEXTILE	12,980	6,864	52.9	46.1
SEWING	12,120	7,146	59.0	95.5
LAUNDERING, DRY CLEANING	12,189	7,084	58.1	61.2
OTHER	15,858	8,513	53.7	13.9
MISC., & NOT SPECIFIED	15,850	8,965	56.6	22.4
FABRICATORS, ASSEMBLERS	15,590	8,098	51.9	32.6
WELDERS & CUTTERS	16,780	10,478	62.4	2.5
ASSEMBLERS	12,434	8,050	64.7	60.3
OTHER & HANDWORKING	14,528	8,344	57.4	31.5
PRODUCTION INSPECTORS				
SAMPLERS & WEIGHERS	16,995	8,327	49.0	43.8
TRANSPORTATION & MATERIALS	18,177	11,000	60.5	3.5
MOTOR VEHICLE OPERATORS	17,131	9,816	57.3	3.8
TRUCK & DRIVER-SALES WORKERS	17,467	9,667	55.3	3.0
BUS DRIVER	13,351	9,000	67.4	14.1
RAIL & WATER TRANSPORTATION	25,573	14,403	56.3	0.7
MATERIAL MOVING EQUIPMENT OPERATOR	17,731	12,275	69.2	4.0
EXCAVITING, GRADING DOZER	17,887	--	--	--
HANDLERS, CLEANERS, HELPERS	14,186	9,021	63.6	16.0
CONSTRUCTION LABORERS	13,254	12,137	91.6	3.8
FREIGHT, STOCK, & MATERIAL	14,917	8,590	57.6	12.6
GARAGE & SERVICE STATION	9,720	5,938	61.1	4.8
HAND-PACKERS	13,676	8,286	60.6	66.6
OTHER	15,286	11,833	77.4	11.8
LABORERS, EXCEPT CONSTRUCTION	14,465	9,491	65.6	14.7
MANUFACTURING	14,823	9,563	64.5	13.1
NONDURABLE	12,157	7,458	61.3	19.5
DURABLE, NOT SPECIFIED	16,073	15,257	94.9	11.5
METAL	20,399	18,726	91.8	9.8
NONMANUFACTURING	14,306	9,459	66.1	15.4
NOT CLASSIFIED	8,514	--	--	--

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.9

UTAH
TOP TEN PAYING FEMALE OCCUPATIONS
FOR FULL-TIME, YEAR-ROUND WORKERS
1979

OCCUPATION	FEMALE MEDIAN EARNINGS	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL
COMPUTER SCIENTISTS & ANALYSTS	$ 19,426	86.9	12.3
PHYSICIANS	18,554	40.6	7.9
LAWYERS & JUDGES	15,845	57.0	7.2
POST SECONDARY TEACHERS	15,667	62.5	12.8
ENGINEERS	15,108	65.6	2.7
AUTO MECHANICS	14,629	96.9	1.8
REGISTERED NURSES	14,315	87.7	94.0
MANAGERS, TRANS., COMM., UTIL.	14,291	59.4	10.1
MANAGERS, MEDICINE & HEALTH	13,761	54.0	38.1
NATURAL SCIENTISTS	13,481	64.5	9.9

NOTE: FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN EACH OCCUPATION MUST HAVE BEEN AT LEAST 100.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.10

UTAH
TOP TEN PAYING MALE OCCUPATIONS
FOR FULL-TIME, YEAR-ROUND WORKERS
1979

OCCUPATION	MALE MEDIAN EARNINGS	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL
PHYSICIANS	$ 45,748	40.6	7.9
DENTISTS	36,481	19.2	1.0
HEALTH DIAGNOSING EXCEPT PHYSICIANS & DENTISTS	30,050	42.3	5.6
LAWYERS & JUDGES	27,299	57.0	7.2
RAIL & WATER TRANSPORTATION OCCUPATIONS	25,573	56.3	0.7
MANAGERS MEDICINE & HEALTH	25,470	54.0	38.1
ADMINISTRATORS, EDUCATION	25,124	46.0	16.2
POST SECONDARY TEACHERS	25,061	62.5	12.8
MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS, MANUFACTURING	24,413	52.7	8.8
MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS, TRANS., COMM. & PUB. UTILITIES	24,070	59.4	10.1

NOTE: FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN EACH OCCUPATION MUST HAVE BEEN AT LEAST 100.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.11

UTAH
TEN OCCUPATIONS WITH HIGHEST FEMALE/MALE PAY RATIO
YEAR ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS
1979

OCCUPATION	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE MEDIAN WAGE	PERCENT OF FEMALE WORKERS
AUTO MECHANICS	96.9	$14,629	1.8
PAINTERS, CONSTRUCTION & MAINTENANCE	95.1	15,056	3.3
LABORERS, DURABLE MANUFACTURING	94.9	15,257	11.5
NURSING AIDES, ORDERLIES & ATTENDANT	88.8	7,316	83.5
REGISTERED NURSES	87.7	14,315	94.0
COMPUTER SCIENTISTS & ANALYSTS	86.9	19,426	12.3
SECRETARIES	78.9	9,535	98.9
DRAFTING & SURVEYING TECHNICIANS	78.6	12,286	11.0
COOKS	78.3	6,938	49.5
WAITERS & FOOD COUNTER WORKERS	77.8	5,754	86.3

NOTE: FEMALE EMPLOYMENT MUST EQUAL 100 OR MORE FOR OCCUPATION TO BE INCLUDED.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.12

UTAH
MEDIAN INCOME FOR INDIVIDUALS 18 YEARS AND OLDER
BY SEX AND EDUCATION
1979

AGE	ELEMENTARY		HIGH SCHOOL		COLLEGE				
	TOTAL	0-7 YEARS	8 YEARS	1-3 YEARS	4 YEARS	1-3 YEARS	4 YEARS	5-6 YEARS	7 OR MORE
TOTAL 18 & OVER									
MALE	6,818	7,863	9,835	13,237	13,474	18,163	19,872	23,134	13,760
FEMALE	3,428	3,405	3,631	5,028	4,734	6,794	9,786	11,823	4,754
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	50.3	43.3	36.9	38.0	35.1	37.4	49.2	51.1	34.5
18-24 YEARS									
MALE	3,771	4,658	4,875	7,490	5,484	6,644	6,395	6,400	6,298
FEMALE	2,760	2,954	2,327	3,912	3,498	5,247	5,017	3,281	3,527
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	73.2	63.4	47.7	52.2	63.8	79.0	78.5	51.3	56.0
25-34 YEARS									
MALE	6,682	9,909	12,950	15,125	14,618	15,833	15,702	15,781	15,046
FEMALE	4,000	3,713	4,161	5,479	5,626	7,332	9,365	10,981	5,770
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	59.9	37.5	32.1	36.2	38.5	46.3	59.6	69.6	38.3
35-44 YEARS									
MALE	10,917	14,413	16,368	18,280	19,937	21,930	22,773	25,708	20,062
FEMALE	3,967	4,659	5,269	6,151	6,526	6,489	10,687	12,152	6,191
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	36.3	32.3	32.2	33.6	32.7	29.6	46.9	47.3	30.9
45-54 YEARS									
MALE	12,240	15,266	18,020	20,221	20,958	26,320	25,316	27,600	20,979
FEMALE	4,550	5,153	5,802	6,829	7,841	9,664	13,808	16,009	6,996
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	37.2	33.8	32.2	33.8	37.4	36.7	54.5	58.0	33.3
55-64 YEARS									
MALE	9,394	11,620	14,538	16,925	19,146	25,024	24,588	29,928	17,562
FEMALE	3,801	3,694	4,388	6,142	7,616	10,587	15,094	15,496	6,063
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	40.5	31.8	30.2	36.3	39.8	42.3	61.4	51.8	34.5
65 & OVER									
MALE	5,616	6,247	7,278	8,596	10,071	11,948	14,264	17,455	7,891
FEMALE	3,140	3,279	3,550	3,930	4,238	6,138	8,529	9,146	3,798
FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	55.9	52.5	48.8	45.7	42.1	51.4	59.8	52.4	48.1

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.13

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
1979 MEAN EARNINGS OF MARRIED COUPLE FAMILIES
BY LABOR FORCE STATUS

	PERCENT OF TOTAL MARRIED COUPLE FAMILIES		MEAN FAMILY EARNINGS		WIFE'S EARNINGS AS A % OF FAMILY EARNINGS	
	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	$20,759	$21,480	15.8	19.1
HUSBAND & WIFE WORKED IN 1979	52.2	50.8	23,969	26,649	24.6	27.8
BOTH USUALLY WORKED FULL-TIME	29.2	33.2	25,856	27,645	30.3	32.7
BOTH WORKED 50 TO 52 WEEKS	12.9	17.0	30,546	30,963	33.7	35.2
HUSBAND WORKED LESS THAN 40 WEEKS	3.1	3.1	15,864	17,861	42.8	44.6
WIFE WORKED 50 TO 52 WEEKS	1.1	1.4	19,389	20,363	51.7	51.7
HUSBAND USUALLY WORKED FULL-TIME WIFE PART-TIME	19.0	14.7	23,032	26,072	12.9	14.6
HUSBAND WORKED LESS THAN 40 WEEKS	1.5	1.1	12,459	14,552	21.5	23.5
HUSBAND USUALLY WORKED PART-TIME	2.2	1.7	16,373	19,495	46.8	47.0
WIFE WORKED 50 TO 52 WEEKS	1.0	1.0	18,424	21,434	55.5	51.5
HUSBAND & WIFE USUALLY WORKED PART-TIME	1.8	1.2	12,815	16,532	26.4	26.8
HUSBAND DID NOT WORK IN 1979, WIFE WORKED IN 1979	2.7	4.0	9,124	9,774	78.5	78.0
WIFE WORKED 50 TO 52 WEEKS	1.4	2.2	11,698	12,074	81.7	81.3
HUSBAND WORKED IN 1979, WIFE DID NOT WORK	36.1	32.5	21,822	22,580	-	-
HUSBAND & WIFE DID NOT WORK	9.0	12.6	1,315	1,546	-	-

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.14

UTAH AND UNITED STATES
1979 MEAN EARNINGS OF MARRIED COUPLE FAMILIES
BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

LABOR FORCE STATUS	PERCENT OF TOTAL MARRIED COUPLE FAMILIES		MEAN FAMILY EARNINGS		WIFE'S EARNINGS AS A % OF FAMILY EARNINGS	
	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.	UTAH	U.S.
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	$20,759	$21,480	15.8	19.1
HUSBAND - 4 OR MORE YEARS OF COLLEGE	49.8	35.5				
WIFE - 4 OR MORE YEARS OF COLLEGE	30.1	21.0	23,977	30,664	15.3	19.9
WIFE - 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	19.2	13.8	22,606	25,462	13.9	15.5
WIFE - LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL	0.5	0.7	17,415	16,862	9.8	13.9
HUSBAND - 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	44.6	47.8				
WIFE - 4 OR MORE YEARS OF COLLEGE	7.2	6.8	20,311	22,433	22.0	26.6
WIFE - 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	35.9	37.2	19,120	19,902	16.2	18.6
WIFE - LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL	1.5	3.7	13,390	13,582	14.1	14.5
HUSBAND - LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL	5.6	16.7				
WIFE - 4 OR MORE YEARS OF COLLEGE	0.6	1.0	13,422	14,524	23.0	29.8
WIFE - 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TO 1-3 YEARS COLLEGE	3.2	7.9	11,641	13,765	19.4	21.1
WIFE - LESS THAN 4 YEARS HIGH SCHOOL	1.8	7.8	7,675	9,251	16.7	16.6

SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.15

UTAH & UNITED STATES
PERSONS BELOW SPECIFIED POVERTY LEVEL IN 1979
BY AGE AND SEX

	INCOME IN 1979 BELOW POVERTY LEVEL		PERCENT BY SEX	PERCENT BY AGE
	NUMBER	PERCENT		
UTAH				
FEMALE	83,885	11.6	56.7	100.0
UNDER 16 YEARS	27,035	11.5	49.8	32.2
16-21	16,509	19.2	63.2	19.7
22-24	7,530	16.2	54.0	9.0
25-34	12,177	10.3	57.0	14.5
35-44	5,232	7.3	57.0	6.2
45-54	2,776	4.9	56.8	3.3
55-59	1,616	5.9	61.7	1.9
60-64	1,955	8.1	60.9	2.3
65 AND OVER	9,055	15.1	73.2	10.8
MALE	64,120	9.0	43.3	100.0
UNDER 16 YEARS	27,306	11.1	50.2	42.6
16-21	9,605	12.5	36.8	15.0
22-24	6,411	13.4	46.0	10.0
25-34	9,169	7.6	43.0	14.3
35-44	3,948	5.6	43.0	6.2
45-54	2,114	3.8	43.2	3.3
55-59	1,002	3.9	38.3	1.6
60-64	1,253	5.7	39.1	2.0
65 AND OVER	3,312	7.3	26.8	5.2
UNITED STATES (NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)				
FEMALE	15,756	13.8	57.5	100.0
UNDER 16 YEARS	4,495	16.8	49.4	28.5
16-21	2,051	17.4	55.8	13.0
22-24	969	15.6	58.2	6.2
25-34	2,168	11.6	60.8	13.8
35-44	1,293	9.9	60.7	8.2
45-54	1,000	8.5	59.9	6.3
55-59	607	9.9	63.1	3.9
60-64	663	12.3	64.1	4.2
65 AND OVER	2,510	17.6	70.1	15.9
MALE	11,636	10.9	42.5	100.0
UNDER 16 YEARS	4,613	16.5	50.6	39.6
16-21	1,624	13.9	44.2	14.0
22-24	696	11.7	41.8	6.0
25-34	1,400	7.7	39.2	12.0
35-44	838	6.7	39.3	7.2
45-54	668	6.1	40.1	5.7
55-59	355	6.5	36.9	3.1
60-64	371	8.0	35.9	3.2
65 AND OVER	1,072	10.8	29.9	9.2

EXCLUDES INMATES OF GROUP QUARTERS OR UNRELATED PERSONS UNDER 15 YEARS.
SOURCE: 1980 CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

TABLE 4.16

UTAH & UNITED STATES
PERSONS BELOW POVERTY LEVEL
BY RELATIONSHIP AND SEX
1969 & 1979

	INCOME IN 1969 BELOW POVERTY LEVEL		INCOME IN 1979 BELOW POVERTY LEVEL	
	NUMBER	PERCENT	NUMBER	PERCENT
UTAH				
PERSONS IN FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HOUSEHOLDER, NO HUSBAND PRESENT	31,700	31.1	25,444	39.4
FEMALE HOUSEHOLDS	9,372	28.0	6,835	34.7
RELATED CHILDREN UNDER 18	20,568	41.7	16,507	50.9
OTHER RELATIVES	1,760	9.2	2,102	16.9
PERSONS IN FAMILIES WITH MALE HOUSEHOLDER	73,778	6.2	62,176	6.9
MALE HOUSEHOLDS	17,761	5.5	16,019	7.0
RELATED CHILDREN UNDER 18	36,418	7.6	28,483	7.3
OTHER RELATIVES	19,599	5.0	17,674	6.2
UNITED STATES (NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)				
PERSONS IN FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HOUSEHOLDER, NO HUSBAND PRESENT	8,638	34.4	6,920	38.2
FEMALE HOUSEHOLDS	2,484	30.3	1,801	32.5
RELATED CHILDREN UNDER 18	5,126	47.8	4,285	52.7
OTHER RELATIVES	1,027	16.6	834	18.9
PERSONS IN FAMILIES WITH MALE HOUSEHOLDER	11,894	7.1	14,184	8.7
MALE HOUSEHOLDS	3,186	6.2	3,682	8.1
RELATED CHILDREN UNDER 18	4,899	9.4	6,157	10.1
OTHER RELATIVES	3,809	5.8	4,346	7.6

NOTE: EXCLUDES PERSONS IN GROUP QUARTERS AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS UNDER 15.
SOURCE: CENSUS OF THE POPULATION 1980.

TABLE 5.1

TIME USE OF WORKING ADULTS
AT WORK AND AT HOME
BY SEX
1965 AND 1975

ACTIVITY	MINUTES PER DAY									
	MARRIED MEN		UNMARRIED MEN		MARRIED WOMEN		UNMARRIED WOMEN		AVERAGE	
	1965	1975	1965	1975	1965	1975	1965	1975	1965	1975
TOTAL WORK TIME	548	523	534	435	602	515	548	517	559	503
LABOR MARKET TIME 1/	451	428	454	353	337	276	350	353	409	367
MAIN JOB	383	365	394	309	294	242	300	305	350	316
SECOND JOB	9	7	8	2	2	0	5	0	7	3
TRAVEL TO WORK	43	40	33	34	28	21	31	32	37	33
WORK AT HOME										
HOUSEWORK	23	25	37	38	181	143	121	89	76	64
HOUSEHOLD REPAIRS, UPKEEP, GARDENING	13	18	2	10	4	10	2	7	8	13
CHILDCARE	17	15	5	5	29	31	19	27	19	19
SHOPPING, FINANCIAL	44	37	36	29	51	55	56	41	47	40
TOTAL NONWORK TIME	891	918	904	1,004	839	925	893	923	881	937
PERSONAL CARE	639	642	636	667	652	685	671	684	647	662
EDUCATION	10	18	20	34	4	7	17	20	11	20
ORGANIZATIONS	16	15	15	12	9	16	23	10	16	15
SOCIAL EVENTS	35	29	76	48	30	35	46	36	39	34
ACTIVE LEISURE	26	31	27	59	23	24	16	24	24	34
PASSIVE LEISURE										
TV VIEWING	103	132	73	118	59	105	66	94	84	117
OTHER	62	51	57	66	62	53	54	55	60	55
SAMPLE SIZE 2/	448	248	73	86	190	119	152	104	864	557

1/ Labor Market participation was defined by 10 or more hours per week; figures include time at lunch.

2/ Subgroup sample sizes may not add to totals due to missing data.

SOURCE: Frank P. Stafford, "Women's Use of Time Converging with Men's", Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 103, No. 12, (December 1980), based on national time use surveys conducted by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan.

TABLE 5.2

UNITED STATES
PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE
BY AGE
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1975 AND 1982

PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE	YEAR	TOTAL	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
LIFESTYLE 1	1975	5	9	5	5	4	6	6
Be mainly a job holder or career women	1982	12	16	9	9	12	9	9
LIFESTYLE 2	1975	22	9	10	21	28	30	40
Be mainly a homemaker	1982	20	6	11	17	25	28	41
LIFESTYLE 3	1975	24	31	27	30	22	17	12
Combine homemaking with career using child care if necessary	1982	22	25	25	24	22	19	25
LIFESTYLE 4	1975	49	51	58	44	46	47	42
Stay home with children when young, then combine career and homemaking	1982	46	53	55	50	41	44	25

SOURCE: MARKET OPINION RESEARCH, as Reported in American Demographics, August 1983.

TABLE 5.3

UNITED STATES
PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE
BY LIFESTAGE
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1982

IDEAL LIFESTYLE	TOTAL	YOUNG SINGLE (UNDER 35)	YOUNG MARRIED (UNDER 35, NO CHILDREN)	MARRIED MOTHER (CHILDREN AT HOME)	DIVORCED (OR SEPARATED)	OLDER MARRIED (35+, CHILDREN AT HOME)	OLDER SINGLE (35+)	WIDOW
LIFESTYLE 1 Be mainly a job holder or career woman	12	25	8	4	27	5	49	1
LIFESTYLE 2 Be mainly a homemaker	20	5	10	15	8	35	17	35
LIFESTYLE 3 Combine homemakink with career using child care if necessary	22	23	24	26	26	19	18	16
LIFESTYLE 4 Stay home with children when young, then combine career and homemaking	46	47	58	55	39	41	16	36

1 SOURCE: MARKET OPINION RESEARCH, as Reported in American Demographics, August 1983.

TABLE 5.4

UTAH
CHILDREN BY AGE
AND PARENT'S STATUS
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1982

	PARENTS WORK	PARENTS DO NOT WORK	PARENTS WOULD WORK IF ADEQUATE CHILDCARE AVAILABLE
0 - 1 YEAR	53	47	31
2 - 5 YEARS	72	28	22
6 - 9 YEARS	65	35	23
10-14 YEARS	69	31	17

NOTE: EMPLOYMENT STATUS PERTAINS ONLY TO PARENT WHO COMPLETED THE SURVEY FORM.
SOURCE: "WHO'S TAKING CARE OF OUR KIDS?", A REPORT ON A CHILDCARE SURVEY CONDUCTED BY UTAH ISSUES INFORMATION PROGRAM, APRIL 1982.

TABLE 5.5

UTAH
CHILDCARE ARRANGEMENTS
OF PARENTS WHO WORK
1982

CHILDCARE ARRANGEMENTS	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
CHILDCARE CENTERS	53
SITTER, OUTSIDE HOME	25
CHILDREN IN SCHOOL	24
FAMILY MEMBER	22
SITTER, IN HOME	7
CHILDREN LEFT ALONE	4
TAKE CHILDREN TO WORK	4
OTHER	4

NOTE: PERCENTAGES DO NOT ADD TO 100 AS RESPONDENTS MAY USE MORE THAN ONE TYPE OF CHILDCARE.
SOURCE: "WHO'S TAKING CARE OF OUR KIDS?", A REPORT ON A CHILDCARE SURVEY CONDUCTED BY UTAH ISSUES INFORMATION PROGRAM, APRIL 1982.

TABLE 5.6
UNITED STATES
MARITAL STATUS, EMPLOYMENT & HEALTH

AGE & MARITAL STATUS	AVERAGE NUMBER OF RESTRICTED ACTIVITY DAYS PER YEAR		AVERAGE NUMBER OF BED DISABILITY DAYS PER YEAR		AVERAGE NUMBER OF ACUTE CONDITIONS PER YEAR		% WITH ANY ACTIVE LIMITATIONS DUE TO CHRONIC CONDITIONS		PERCENT WITH EXCELLENT OR GOOD HEALTH	
	EMPLOYED	NOT IN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYED	NOT IN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYED	NOT IN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYED	NOT IN LABOR FORCE	EMPLOYED	NOT IN LABOR FORCE
17-24										
MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	14.6	17.1	6.2	8.4	3.0	2.6	3.8	4.4	90.9	89.3
NO CHILDREN	13.0	19.2	5.5	8.2	3.2	3.0	3.5	6.5	93.8	87.9
NOT MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	8.1	15.3	4.1	8.5	2.2	2.4	3.5	8.1	93.8	87.4
NO CHILDREN	12.0	12.8	5.7	5.0	3.2	2.5	3.8	7.2	94.2	91.5
25-34										
MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	15.0	16.6	5.4	6.3	2.5	2.6	5.1	6.6	92.2	91.2
NO CHILDREN	11.8	22.4	4.2	10.1	2.7	2.1	5.2	9.0	94.6	88.3
NOT MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	18.4	30.2	7.5	13.7	3.0	2.6	6.0	22.4	88.1	70.7
NO CHILDREN	16.3	46.7	6.0	24.8	3.0	1.8	7.6	36.3	92.4	69.8
35-44										
MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	12.6	18.0	5.9	7.6	1.8	1.8	7.4	11.2	91.0	87.6
NO CHILDREN	12.7	25.2	5.1	9.6	1.8	1.4	8.0	19.6	89.0	77.3
NOT MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	19.4	58.5	7.1	24.6	2.1	2.6	11.0	36.2	85.1	55.1
NO CHILDREN	17.7	64.1	6.6	23.1	2.5	1.7	10.4	58.8	89.6	52.7
45-54										
MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	12.4	24.7	5.2	7.8	1.7	1.5	9.0	20.5	87.2	78.1
NO CHILDREN	14.2	32.0	4.9	11.9	1.5	1.5	10.1	25.3	86.8	75.5
NOT MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	22.0	67.6	5.7	29.1	2.2	1.2	14.6	51.6	78.3	49.8
NO CHILDREN	17.9	82.0	5.8	32.6	2.0	2.0	12.6	58.3	86.8	46.8
55-64										
MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	12.5	32.8	5.6	10.1	0.8	1.4	12.7	28.2	83.9	69.4
NO CHILDREN	13.3	30.1	4.2	11.0	1.4	1.2	12.5	30.1	83.9	70.4
NOT MARRIED										
WITH CHILDREN	26.5	65.3	6.9	18.6	1.7	1.7	18.4	51.1	81.8	50.0
NO CHILDREN	18.2	67.7	6.6	23.4	1.6	1.8	16.3	51.8	95.8	52.7

SOURCE: NATIONAL HEALTH INTERVIEW SURVEY FOR POOLED YEARS 1977-1978 AS REPORTED IN AMERICAN DEMOGRAPHICS, MARCH 1985.

DEFINITIONS

Birth Rate (crude): The number of resident live births divided by the total resident population-multiplied by 1,000.

Children Ever Born: The number of children ever born to women 15 and over-excludes, still-births, stepchildren and adopted children. Children no longer living, and away from home are included in counts.

Civilian Labor Force: All civilians classified as employed or unemployed (see specific definitions). The "labor force" also includes numbers of the Armed Forces stationed in the United States.

Divorce Rate: The number of resident divorces divided by the total resident population—multiplied by 1,000.

Earnings: Wage or salary income and net income from farm and nonfarm self-employment.

Employed Persons: All civilians who, during the survey period, did any work at all as paid employees, in their own business, on their own farm, or who worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers in an enterprise operated by a member of the family. Employed persons also includes all those who were not working but who had jobs or businesses from which they were temporarily absent because of illness, bad weather, vocation, labor-management disputes, or personal reasons, whether or not they were paid for time off or were seeking other jobs. Each employed person was counted only once.

Experienced Civilian Labor Force: The employed and experienced unemployed.

Family: A group of two or more persons residing together who are related by birth, marriage or adoption. Data on earnings of families exclude all those in which there is no wage or salary earner or in which the persons maintaining the family is self-employed or in the Armed Services.

Full-Time Labor Force: Persons working on full-time schedules (35 hours or more a week), persons involuntarily working part-time, and unemployed persons seeking full-time jobs.

Household: All persons—related family members and all unrelated persons—who occupy a housing unit.

Householder: The person (or one of the persons) in whose name the housing unit is owned or rented. The term is never applied to either husbands or wives in married couple families but relates only to persons in families maintained by either men or women without a spouse.

Income: Wage and salary income; nonfarm net self-employment income; farm net self-employment income; interest dividend, net royalty or rental income; public assistance or welfare income; Social Security or Railroad Retirement income, and all other types of income. Does not include lump-sum type receipts (such as insurance payment, the value of "in kind" income, employer contributions to pensions, exchange of money between family members, tax refunds, etc.)

Income of Household: The income of the householder and all other persons 15 years and older in the household. Since many households consist of only one person, average household income is usually less than average family income.

Marriage Rate: The number of resident marriages divided by the total resident population—multiplied by 1,000.

Mean: Derived by dividing the sum of values in a particular statistical universe by the number of units in that universe.

Median: The value which divides the particular distribution into two equal parts, one part having values above the median and the other having values below the median.

Not in the Labor Force: Includes all persons who are not classified as employed or unemployed.

Participation Rates: Proportion of population in the labor force. "Labor Force Participation Rate" represents the ratio of the labor force (including resident Armed Forces to the noninstitutional population). "Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate" is the ratio of the civilian labor force to the civilian noninstitutional population.

Part-Time Labor Force: Persons working part-time voluntarily and unemployed persons seeking part-time work.

Persons Income Below Poverty Level: Persons with whose income fell below poverty thresholds determined by the federal government. No attempt has been made to compute poverty-levels on a state level.

Self-Employed Persons: Persons who work for profit or fees in their own business, profession, or trade, or operate a farm.

Unpaid Family Workers: Persons working without pay for 15 hours a week or more on a business operated by a member of the household to whom they are related by birth or marriage.

Unemployed Persons: All civilians who had no employment during the survey period, who were available for work, except for temporary illness, and (a) had made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks, or (b) were waiting to be recalled to a job from which they had been laid off, or (c) were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Unrelated Individual: A householder living alone or with nonrelatives only, or a household member who is not related to the householder, or a person living in group quarters who is not an inmate of an institution.

Wage and Salary Workers: Workers who receive wages, salary, commission, tips, or pay in kind from a private employer or government unit.

Year-Round Full-Time Workers: Persons 16 years and older who usually worked 35 hours or more per week for 50 to 52 weeks during the year.

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